

# DE BOW'S REVIEW.

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## PACIFIC RAILROAD EXPLORATIONS BY GOVERNMENT.\*

Before the accession of California, the western possessions of the United States were looked upon as a sort of fairy land basking under the influences of a most delightful climate, and enriched by the choicest gifts of Nature. Gigantic herds of buffaloes, and troops of wild horses of comely proportions and unsurpassed fleetness, roaming at large over pastures whose verdure never paled, were said to meet the eye of the traveler at every turn. Plains of immense extent and unparalleled fatness lay at his feet, while ever and anon rich clumps of woodland, and gently flowing rivulets, invited him to shelter and repose. Farther on these became interspersed with hills and ravines, highly picturesque in effect, terminated in the remote distance by the snow-clad elevations of the Rocky Mountains, which were again succeeded by gentle slopes of arable land, whose western limits were washed by the waves of the Pacific.

Such were the descriptions brought back by the Santa Fe traders who made their annual commercial pilgrimages from the western confines of Missouri, to New Mexico, and by the more adventurous travellers who, from love of novelty or fondness for a roving life, left behind them the haunts of men to roam at pleasure over these unreclaimed and uncultivated regions. The individuals composing these expeditions were the very last to furnish sober and reliable accounts of the country they had recently seen. The spirit of daring adventure or recklessness which induced them to undertake the journey, or at least accompanied them on it, the heightened glow of youthful imaginations, and, more than all, the entire transition from the usual current of their ordinary lives at

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\* From North American Review.

home, seemed to gild with unreal lustre every object they beheld, and to enhance the pleasure of every recollection. To the hunters and trappers who accompanied these expeditions as guides, this life in the wilderness was scarcely less a second nature than a holiday. All their exploits had been here performed, and if it bore witness to their privation and peril, it testified no less of their deeds of courage and daring. They were really attached to it, and never so happy as when sitting over the camp-fire, at the conclusion of the day's journey, narrating to willing ears the part which they had personally enacted in the romance of border-life, doubtless in most instances highly colored by the vividness of their own fancies. What more natural than that the descriptions of a country obtained from such sources should be tinged with the rich hues imparted by the autumn sunset to a distant landscape?

The recent exploring expeditions, sent out under the auspices of the government, have enriched us with a more accurate knowledge of this country, and unfortunately, perhaps, have dispelled many illusions hitherto entertained respecting it. The vast plains indeed exist, but in many instances the salubrity of their climate and the fertility of their soil are more than called into question. Herds of buffaloes are yet encountered, but they are frequently seen scouring an arid waste for miles, amid dense clouds of dust, in search of a short buffalo-grass. Clumps of woodland and running streams there are, but the traveller must look long and well, and man himself to undergo severe fatigue, before he leaves the grateful protection or refreshment of one for the shelter of the next. The immense chain of mountains which divides the waters of the valley of the Mississippi from those of the Pacific, and which appears so beautiful and picturesque in the distance, is found, on a near approach, to be both grand and dangerous. With a base stretching for hundreds of miles, and peaks whose lofty summits are wreathed in the snows of eternal winter, the traveller who has hitherto endured fatigue and privation has now to encounter in crossing it perils of no ordinary character, and such as might well appall a strong arm and a firm will.

The plain to which we have alluded as intervening between the Rocky Mountains and the borders of the Western States is, strictly speaking, a broad plateau rising from east to west by a pretty regular ascent to 5,200, and in some places to 10,000 feet, varying according to the point of approach. It recedes from this altitude towards the Pacific, not by a regular descent, as on the Mississippi slope, but by a series of basins from 1,000 to 3,000 feet below one another, and interspersed by mountain ranges, pursuing different directions. From this crest, which divides the country between the Mississippi and

the Pacific into two unequal portions, the loftier peaks of the Rocky Mountains rise, oftentimes abruptly, to an enormous height.

From the western border of Missouri and Arkansas, this plateau presents the same features recognizable within their limits, for a distance of from two to four hundred miles. Afterwards its character very materially changes. The entire plain, for six hundred miles, is a gentle, undulating prairie, rising towards the Rocky Mountains. The soil, however, which for two or three hundred miles has the same rich and fertile appearance with that within the States, gradually becomes sandy, dry, and less fertile. The long, waving grass of the east is supplanted by short, thick tufts, known as buffalo-grass; clumps of timber are met with at rarer intervals, water becomes scarce, and the soil, composed of hard clay, intermixed with sand, with but an inch or two of vegetable mould, is seldom moistened by refreshing showers. As the plain approaches the mountains, the traces of vegetation become still more rare, timber almost entirely disappears, the buffalo-grass, which has supplanted the richer herbage of the more fruitful land lying contiguous to the settlements, is in its turn succeeded by a growth of wild sage, almost the only plant which flourishes in this sterile region, and water away from the water-courses is so scarce, that it becomes a serious question with the traveller, in setting out upon his day's journey, where he can find the next supply.

These are the chief features presented by the Mississippi slope, and these do not appear to differ materially in any latitude in which they have been examined, but stretch with tolerable regularity from Mexico on the south to the limits of the territory of the United States on the north. It consists, in fine, of a belt of extremely fertile land of from two to three hundred miles in width, succeeded by nearly double that width of what may not inaptly be termed a desert, possessing neither the means of inviting, nor the power of sustaining, any considerable population. Occasionally fertile spots, watered by streams, or hidden in secluded valleys, burst upon the eye of the traveller, deriving an additional beauty from the universal sterility which surrounds them. These, however, form too inconsiderable a portion to enter into an estimate of the general character of the country.

On entering the mountain region which succeeds the Mississippi slope, the scene is changed. The country is broken and uneven, it rises with greater rapidity, and valleys covered with a luxuriant growth of grass are here and there interspersed among the uneven surfaces. These valleys are usually small, but are sometimes found of considerable extent, and of

a very variable character, as to fertility. Indeed, like the plateau which we have just described, this mountain-region may be classed as one of extreme sterility, composed, in some instances, of sandstone, upheaved, broken, and rent asunder in every direction, forming chasms and deep ravines, which occasionally become the beds of streams, and in others of trap, porphyry, and basalt, the latter frequently rising in the form of huge turrets and pinnacles to an enormous height. Ever and anon the traveller is both surprised and delighted to find in his rugged and toilsome pathway a lake studded with small islands, and encompassed upon every side by tall precipices, presenting a scene of the wildest and most picturesque beauty. These lakes are of such frequent occurrence, that they have been found by every exploring party which has crossed the mountains, and are always spoken of in their notes with the utmost enthusiasm. Such scenes of intramural beauty, or even the more magnificent and extended views the traveller is occasionally enabled to obtain from commanding points, furnish but slight remunerations for the daily toil he is obliged to undergo in threading these rugged mountain passes, or in traversing the equally inhospitable plains which lie enclosed within them.

Beginning at the elevated latitude of 49°, the first of these great plains is that enclosed between the Cœur d'Alenè and Bitter Root spurs of the Rocky mountains on the east, and the Cascade mountains upon the west, known as the great plain of the Columbia. This is a table-land whose width is about two hundred miles, and whose surface, with rare exceptions, is entirely destitute of trees. The soil, a part of which lies upon the trap formation, is rocky, sandy, and sterile. Save those parts which lie in immediate contiguity with the mountains, it is entirely uncultivated. Even in those localities so circumstanced as to be enriched by the *débris* of the mountains, and irrigated by the streams which flow from them after occasional showers, it is more than questionable whether the capacity for agriculture is not limited to a mere growth of grass.

Passing southward to latitude 42°, we enter the great basin of Salt Lake, extending from the Rocky mountains on the east to the Sierra Nevada on the west, a distance of more than five hundred miles. The whole of this vast territory may be described as offering but few inducements to the emigrant, either in climate or in adaptation to agricultural pursuits. It is estimated that not more than one-tenth of its whole extent is susceptible of cultivation, and this is almost entirely in the occupancy of the Mormons. With this reservation, the whole basin is so exceedingly sterile, that it is either wholly bare of vegetation, or scantily covered with wild sage.



Southeast from the basin just described, and separated from it by the Wahsatch range of mountains, is another even more sterile, reaching to the Sierra San Juan. This is a dreary desert almost entirely overlaid by sand, and, with the exception of a few isolated spots, utterly unsuited for the abode of man. The general appearance of the surface, where it is not broken, rocky, or mountainous, is dry and light, like an ash-heap in friability, and entirely denuded of vegetation, except that a little bunch-grass is found scattered over the hills, and sometimes the streams are bordered by a growth of wild sage. The soil in this valley, as well as in those we have already described, is strongly impregnated with an alkali which is in the highest degree destructive to vegetation; and yet, by a strange anomaly, the party who traversed it under the command of Lieutenant Beckwith, found in their marches small spots of pasture-ground surpassing any they had seen in the mountain regions.

Following the course of the Colorado river, which pursues a southwesterly direction, one enters the Colorado desert. This extends from the base of Mount San Bernardino to the Gulf of California, a distance of about one hundred and fifty miles. Its width from east to west is variable, but is in some places seventy miles. Of the general character of this desert, Professor Blake remarks:—

"Before I reached the surface of the desert, I had been accustomed to regard it as a vast plain of gravel and sand, and supposed that the latter was so abundant and deep as to impede the progress of animals and wagons. This, I believe, corresponds with the general impression regarding the desert. Instead, however, of the whole plain being composed of loose and sandy materials, we have already seen, by the description previously given, that its basis is a compact blue clay, that, in many cases, has a smooth, floor-like surface, so hard that the passing of mules and wagons scarcely leaves tracks upon it. This clay is alluvial, and forms the delta of the Colorado. It extends northwardly from the head of the Gulf of California as far as the base of the mountain of San Bernardino. The evidence which this alluvial formation affords of the geologically recent submergence of the desert will be subsequently considered.

"There are extensive portions of the desert-surface that are paved with drift-boulders and fine gravel and pebbles. These materials are principally confined to the slopes from the mountains bordering the desert, and to the upper plain, lying to the northward of the emigrant road. This gravelly surface is not loose and porous, but appears to be impacted and condensed, so that it makes a good road for wagons."—*Preliminary Geological Report*, p. 42.

The foregoing brief topographical description embraces within its scope the greater part of the territory lying between the States and the Pacific. With the exception of a few limited tracts of fertile land, it is shown to consist of mountain precipices and barren plains, unsuited alike to agricultural pursuits and to dense occupation. Through a country at present uninhabited, and thus restricted in its capacity to sustain a population, it is proposed to construct a railway which shall

connect the waters of the Pacific with those of the Atlantic. It is not too much to say, that, even in our age of bold enterprises, this project is the boldest, its aims are the most comprehensive, and the means required for its completion the most gigantic, of any yet contemplated.

While the government explorations, on the one hand, have sadly disappointed us as to the character and agricultural value of our Western possessions, they have, on the other, clearly demonstrated the feasibility of constructing a railroad across the ranges of mountains which intervene between the Mississippi river and the Pacific, with no more serious obstacles than were encountered, and successfully overcome, in the construction of similar works across the Alleghany mountains.

These explorations embrace five distinct routes, and cover a section of country extending from the 32d to the 49th parallels of north latitude. Governor Stevens was intrusted with the examination of the most northerly route, running from St. Paul to Vancouver, near the 47th and 49th parallels. He was peculiarly fitted for this duty. Prior to his appointment to the governorship of Washington Territory, he had, as assistant to the chief of the Coast Survey, the entire administrative charge of this complex corps; and it is no mean praise to say, that his methodical arrangement and admirable discipline were so complete, as to insure the greatest amount of uniformity in their labors, and to call forth from his superior the highest encomiums in that important department of philosophical and practical research. He was known to possess high intellectual attainments, excellent powers of observation, and an admirable faculty for discipline. Much, therefore, was expected of him, and, as a substantial contribution to our knowledge of the general features of a new and imperfectly explored section of country, his ponderous volume of six hundred pages has not disappointed the public expectation; but it has signally failed to point out inducements sufficiently weighty to cause the route reconnoitred by him to be seriously considered for one moment. This result, however, is due to the character of the country rather than to the party who took cognizance of it, who, in all departments of inquiry, exercised a zeal worthy of high commendation. It is true, that, in minuteness and exact observation, the joint labors reported in this volume fall far short of the admirable observations made under the superintendence of M. Nicolet. In instituting a comparison between the labors of Stevens and Nicolet, it must, however, be remembered, that those of the former were, from their very nature, hurried and desultory, embraced a wider field of observation, and were more limited in time, than those of the latter. The route explored by Governor Stevens is one whose geographical position would have

precluded its adoption except in the absence of other practicable routes. Apart from its inherent difficulties, the cost of construction, high northern latitude, cold climate, and inhospitable territory, its termination on the Pacific is so far removed from the centre of trade upon that ocean, as to constitute not only a serious, but an insurmountable, objection to its adoption.

The next route in geographical order is that pursuing a line near the 41st and 42d parallels of north latitude, and which, like all the routes except the one already noticed, it is proposed to terminate at San Francisco. The portion of country lying between the Missouri river and Fort Bridger has never been explored with special reference to a railroad. The information we possess of this portion of the route is derived from the reports of Colonel Fremont and Captain Stansbury. Lieutenant Beckwith, who was charged with the duty of making the explorations between Fort Bridger and the Pacific, conducted his labors with judgment and zeal, and terminated them with satisfactory results. This route possesses many advantages, and its examination somewhat in detail may not be out of place.

Two different starting-points are proposed, one at Council Bluffs on the Missouri river, in latitude  $40^{\circ}$ , the other at Westport, which is situated at the confluence of the Kansas and Missouri rivers, in latitude  $39^{\circ}$ . The more northerly starting-point would, if a continuous railroad were contemplated, connect with a line terminating at Chicago. The more southerly would follow the course of the Missouri eastward to St. Louis. Pursuing a westerly direction from either of these starting-points, the surveys would connect on the Platte river near Fort Kearney, in longitude  $99^{\circ}$ . From this point, the route would ascend the Platte and pass through the Black Hills, or the eastern chain of the Rocky Mountains, either by the North Fork of the Platte and its tributary, the Sweet-Water, or the South Fork of the Platte. Both of these contemplated surveys would again meet at Fort Bridger, and thence follow the line indicated by Lieutenant Beckwith, by the Great Salt Lake, the valley of the Humboldt river and Fort Reading, to San Francisco.

The agricultural character of this route has, for the most part, been anticipated in the general statement already given. One word in relation to its geological character. Westward from the confluence of the Kansas and Missouri, the prevailing rock for three hundred miles is limestone, often rich in organic remains. The limestone formation in the neighborhood of Westport is blue and hard. This is followed by a limestone of a soft character and yellow color, and this again by a gray, hard sub-crystalline limestone. In longitude  $100^{\circ}$ , and near

the junction of the Republican Fork with the Kansas, a range of low hills is found (also of limestone,) which appear to have been the limits of a former bed of water, most probably an ancient lake of considerable extent. The lines which mark the banks of this lake do not always conform to the curvatures of the hills, which extend as far south as the North Fork of the Red river, and perhaps still farther. The gravelly and sterile soil which succeeds the fertile land of the limestone formation is imposed upon a sandstone abounding in organic remains, which shows itself at numerous points where creeks and rivers have cut their channels through it. Beneath the sandstone, is a hard, fine-grained rock of a yellow color, which, like the sandstone, is often found disintegrated by atmospheric agency.

The first cascades on entering the mountain region fall over a ridge of granite. The principal rock, however, is a fine-grained sandstone, firmer than that of the plain, and white. Plutonic action has rent this asunder, scattered its huge masses in all directions, and upheaved the great body of it nearly to a vertical direction. At the base of the higher mountains, drifts of quartz and porphyry occur. The peculiar character of the more lofty mountain-peaks is imparted to them by trachytic porphyry. This porphyry is of a dark gray color, interspersed at the base of the mountains, with crystals of felspar and black mica. Some of the specimens collected by the expedition are very beautiful, and contain crystals of felspar, from one to two-tenths of an inch in size. As the mountain range is penetrated still farther, the porphyry continues, but the crystals of felspar become more rare, and the mica seems to be transformed into tourmaline. Granite, gneiss, sandstone, and blue limestone also present themselves, not regularly but often in confused masses, as if torn from their original connections by intense Plutonic agency, forming a chaotic mass, always rugged and wild in appearance, and sometimes affording views of peculiar grandeur.

The entrance into some of the valleys, whose sides are of the true trap formation, is beautiful in the extreme. As it presents itself in these situations, the trap is usually abrupt, steep, and frequently vertical. Portions of the least exposed sides are covered with vegetation, which presents a charming contrast to the rugged walls, of red trap porphyry, which not unfrequently rise in majestic grandeur to the height of three or four thousand feet. Immediately west of the valley of the Great Salt Lake, the mountains consist of a limestone of the coal formation. Above this, a conglomerate furnishes the base upon which rest irregular peaks of porphyry and granite. In a westerly direction, this limestone not unfrequently presents itself, and in the Humboldt mountains it constitutes one



of the main features of the chain, showing itself on the summits of the highest peaks in all those irregular and fantastic shapes which, when exposed in lofty elevations to a warfare with the elements, it is known to assume.

After crossing the Humboldt mountains, granite, sienite, and quartz constitute the principal rocks; but the closer the approach to the Sierra Nevada, the more do the volcanic rocks take the place of others, until at last they prevail almost exclusively. One of the most remarkable rocks found in the vicinity of the Humboldt mountains consists of a mixture of agate, chalcedony, and jasper, fused together by volcanic action. This occurs in abundance, in a gorge named by Dr. Schiel, from the circumstance of its presence, Agate Cañon. This rock possesses both beauty and hardness. It is susceptible of a high degree of polish, and under such circumstances reveals rich and variegated tints, admirably adapting it to the purposes of the lapidary. It is highly probable that it may yet subserve some useful, or at least ornamental purpose in the arts.

The formation of the Sierra Nevada is almost entirely composed of rocks of the newer series, as basalt, phonolite, and trachyte. The latter occurs in greatest abundance, and, with its associates, entirely displaces the granite, gneiss, and even the sandstone which we have traced from our first entrance into the mountains up to this point, although farther south this chain is rich in those formations. On every side, evidences of volcanic action are met with, which give not only character to the rock, but form and peculiarity to the mountain peaks.

"The highly interesting scenery around the so-called 'Black Butte,' bears, of all the parts of the Sierra Nevada we passed over, most strikingly the character of a volcanic country. Surrounded by elevated peaks and high cliffs, and quite isolated, stands a mountain, from eight hundred to a thousand feet high, of conical shape, and formed of black lava, apparently a monument of the latest disturbing forces in these regions. The lava is in some degree decomposed at the surface, and the butte, as well as the soil around, is covered with volcanic sand, and blocks or small pieces of that lava. In the cliffs on the west side of the butte, the lava passes gradually into trachyte. The summit of this mountain butte is rounded, and no opening in it is perceptible from below."—*Schiel's Report*, p. 131.

This geological sketch of the country traversed by the middle railway route will serve the two-fold purpose of informing the reader what particular strata occur on the line and may be made subservient to railway construction, and of enabling him without further detail, to arrive at tolerably correct conclusions as to the mineral character of the country north and south of this section. It is true that each district of slope or mountain is stamped by its own peculiarities, requiring separate examination and description for accurate detail; but

notwithstanding this diversity of structure in particular localities, the main features of the whole country will be found to bear so marked an identity as to render the deductions made from such a vast and comprehensive generalization as is here attempted somewhat reliable, at least sufficiently so for a cursory view. The duty of making a general geological survey of the whole country lying between the Mississippi river and the Pacific, has been assigned to Professor Blake, who has already distinguished himself by his geological observations on the great desert and the surrounding mountain country. The field is both rich and comprehensive, and with the zeal which has hitherto characterized his labors, we have reason to hope that he may add largely to his present reputation and to geological science.

In addition to the geographical notice already given, it may be proper to state, that, after passing the 99th meridian, the only extensive body of cultivable land on the whole route is that embraced in the Great Basin, and in the possession of the Mormons. The entire area of soil susceptible of cultivation is one thousand one hundred and eight square miles. About one-tenth of this can be cultivated either without irrigation or with unexpensive works; the remainder would require costly works to develop it. The Mormons have congregated in these rocky fastnesses to the number of twenty-seven thousand, and have appropriated to themselves every acre of arable land in the whole basin. It is hardly to be supposed that, with the peculiar views entertained by them in regard to the possession of territory, which rendered them so unpleasant neighbors in Illinois and Missouri, they would quietly submit to any inroads on their territorial rights. Were this region capable of sustaining a large population, a curious problem in political economy would soon need to be solved. As it is, there is every probability of their being left in undisturbed possession of their present home, until such time as they determine this question for themselves.

The distance by this route from Council Bluffs to Benicia, the western terminus near San Francisco, is 2,032 miles, its sum of ascents and descents 29,120 feet, and its estimated cost \$116,095,000. From Council Bluffs or Fort Leavenworth to the entrance into the Black Hills, a distance of about 600 miles, the ascent would average about 40 feet to the mile, and the route would not vary materially from any of the others between the Mississippi and the Rocky mountains. This part of the route may be considered as possessing great advantages for the construction of a railroad. Its chief disadvantage consists in the inadequate supply of timber along the whole line, and the almost entire absence of it in the desolate region west

of longitude 99°. After entering the Black Hills, this route has peculiarities and difficulties of its own. From the first gorge in these mountains until the summit of the Pass is attained, a distance of 291 miles, the work resembles that of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad in its passage through the Alleghanies, and would be both difficult and expensive. From the Pass to Fort Bridger, the work would be somewhat less expensive, yet similar in character. The elevation at Fort Bridger is 7,490 feet. The distance from Council Bluffs is 942 miles; from Fort Leavenworth, 1,072 miles.

From Fort Bridger the route ascends the water-shed between the waters of Green river and those of the Great Salt Lake, with grades of from 40 to 60 feet per mile, and, after following the White Clay creek to its junction with Weber river, proceeds with this latter stream through a wild and precipitous gorge in the Wahsatch mountains, in the valley of the Great Salt Lake. This gorge, which is extremely narrow and rugged, furnishes one of the chief obstacles to the construction of a railroad, but the difficulties, although great, are not insurmountable.

The route from this point to the Humboldt mountains, a distance of 600 miles, lies across the Great Salt Lake valley, and may be easily pursued. The Humboldt mountains are entered by a pass, which extends nine miles, and opens upon the Humboldt river. The steepest grade in this pass is 89 feet to the mile, for eight miles. A descent is made thence into the valley of the Humboldt river. This stream is followed for 190 miles, and is then left to pursue a line to Madelin Pass in the Sierra Nevada chain, a distance of 119 miles. From this Pass the plateau of the Sierra Nevada, a plain about 40 miles from east to west, covered with isolated peaks and irregular ridges, and about 5,200 feet above the level of the sea, is reached. After crossing this plain another descent is made into the valley watered by the Sacramento river, whose course is followed, between the Sierra Nevada and the Coast mountains, to Benicia, the terminus of this road.

So far as mere location is concerned, this route possesses advantages far above all others. The possibility of constructing a railroad 2,000 miles in length, across a mountainous country torn asunder and upheaved by volcanic agency, bristling with lofty summits, and cut up by deep and apparently impassable chasms, without a single tunnel or a grade above 100 feet in the mile, seems scarcely credible. Yet such is the result of Lieutenant Beckwith's explorations, a result in which those who know him best repose entire confidence.

From the description already given of the agricultural capabilities of this route, it may readily be imagined that timber

is extremely rare, and difficult of attainment. Fuel for the use of the working parties may possibly be procured in most places along the line. Timber for cross-ties and lumber is found only at intervals from two to seven hundred miles apart. No reliance whatever can be placed on fuel for the use of locomotives at any part of the route. Indeed, the propriety of planting young forests for future consumption is a matter which has gravely entered into the consideration of those whose attention has been called to the subject.

The route near the 38th and 39th parallels of latitude, which is wholly impracticable, was prosecuted from the mouth of the Kansas to Sevier river in the Great Basin, where the explorations were suddenly terminated by the murder of Captain Gunnison and several of his associates by the Indians, toward whom he had manifested great kindness, and with whom he supposed himself on the best of terms. Captain Gunnison, with Messrs. R. H. Kern, F. Creutzfeldt, William Potter, and John Bellows, and an escort of a corporal and six men, left the camp for the purpose of exploring the vicinity of Sevier Lake, thought to be some 18 miles distant. On the morning of the following day, the corporal of the escort came reeling into the camp, weak and exhausted, scarcely able to communicate, except in a few broken sentences, the sad news that Captain Gunnison and his party had been surprised by the Indians in their camp, and that those who were unable to escape were all butchered.

The details of this sad catastrophe are given in the words of Lieutenant Beckwith, his second in command.

"Captain Gunnison had encamped early in the afternoon, while the wind and storm were yet fresh, and doubtless feeling the security which men come to indulge after passing long periods of time surrounded by savages without actually encountering them. The abundant grass and fuel of a little nook in the river-bottom, sheltered by the high second bank of the river on one side, and thick willows, distant scarcely thirty yards, on two of the others, with the river in front, offering a tempting place of comfort and utility, which was perhaps accepted without even a thought of danger. It was known to the party that a band of Indians was near them, for we had seen their fires daily since entering the valley; but an unusual feeling of security against them was felt, as Captain Gunnison had learned that a recent quarrel, resulting in several deaths, which they had had with the emigrants, had terminated, and that, notwithstanding this difficulty, they had remained at peace with the neighboring settlers, which had been confirmed and guaranteed for the future in a 'talk' held with some of the Indians of this band, by an agent of the Governor of the Territory, during our stay near Fillmore. This information, Captain Gunnison told me before leaving, relieved him of any apprehension he might otherwise have felt regarding this band, and which was the reason for having asked for so small an escort to accompany him, which his guide, an experienced citizen of the Territory, deemed sufficient.

"The usual precaution of a camp guard had been taken, each of the party (including the commander) in turn having performed that duty during the night. At the break of day all arose, and at once engaged in the usual duties of a camp preparatory to an early start, to reach that day the most distant point of ex-



ploration for the present season. The sun had not yet risen, most of the party being at breakfast, when the surrounding quietness and silence of this vast plain was broken by the discharge of a volley of rifles and a shower of arrows through that devoted camp, mingled with the savage yells of a large band of Pah-Utah Indians, almost in the midst of the camp; for, under cover of the thick bushes, they had approached undiscovered to within twenty-five yards of the camp-fires. The surprise was complete. At the first discharge, the call to 'seize your arms' had little effect. All was confusion. Captain Gunnison, stepping from his tent, called to his savage murderers that he was their friend; but this had no effect. They rushed into camp, and only those escaped who succeeded in mounting on horseback, and even then they were pursued for many miles. The horse of one fell near camp, tumbling his rider under a bush, where he lay for six or seven hours, while the Indians were passing him on every side, until finally he could no longer hear them near him or in the camp, when he left, and was met soon afterwards by Captain Morris' party, which reached the fatal spot just before night. Two Indians were seen near camp by Lieutenant Baker and Mr. Potter, brother of the guide, but they were not able to come up with them before darkness enabled them to escape. The bodies of the slain were not all found at dark, and hope still lingered, as a bright fire was built to assure any survivor of safety. But the long weary night, rendered hideous by the howling of wolves, wore away, as this little band of armed men, barely larger than that which had already been sacrificed, lay near the fatal spot, and day dawned only to discover the mutilated remains of their recent comrades, none of them being scalped—a barbarity which some of the tribes on this part of the continent seldom indulge. Some of their arms were, however, cut off at the elbow, and their entrails cut open; and, the wolves having had access to them during the day and to those exposed during the night, their bodies were in such a condition that it was not deemed possible to bring them away—not even that of Captain Gunnison, who had fallen pierced with fifteen arrows."—*Beckwith's Report*, p. 82.

The route near the 35th parallel, explored by Lieutenant Whipple, is found to be quite practicable. The reports of this officer and his associates, which are so brief as to be embraced in a volume of forty-three pages, show that the same advantages are found, and the same difficulties met with, as have been delineated in the description of the route near the 41st parallel. The steepest grade upon this route is 100 feet to the mile; many occur of from 40 to 70 feet, and one tunnel three and a half miles in length is required. Timber is scarce, and is met with at intervals of from 100 to 500 miles. The country, after passing the 99th meridian, is generally sterile, and unsuited for dense population at any point. It is at present for the most part uninhabited, and from all appearances is likely to continue for ages an unreclaimed, and in many parts a desert waste. The estimated cost of the work and appointments on this route is \$169,000,000.

The last route to be noticed is that near the 32d parallel of north latitude. The examination of different parts of this route was confided to several different parties. That portion of it from Preston on the Red river to the Rio Grande was assigned to Captain Pope; from the Rio Grande to the Pimas villages on the Gila, to Lieutenant Parke; from the Pimas villages, along the Gila to its mouth, to Major Emory; and from the mouth of the Gila to San Francisco, to Lieutenant

Williamson. All of these gentlemen belong to the corps of Topographical Engineers, and great confidence is placed in their respective reports by the chief of the War Department. Indeed, with the exception of the extreme northern route, examined by Governor Stevens, the explorations on this seem to have been conducted with greater care and minuteness than on any of the others.

That portion of the route examined by Captain Pope, from Red river to the Rio Grande, a distance of 646 miles, is naturally divided into three distinct belts. The first belt, from the Red river to the Staked Plain, 352 miles, is described by him as one of great fertility. The Staked Plain, which constitutes the second belt, is 125 miles wide, and has an elevation of 4,500 feet. It is a barren plain, at certain seasons entirely destitute of water and vegetation, and without trees. Between this plain and the Rio Grande, 163 miles, the country is divided by ridges of mountains into three valleys, or rather plains; for the mountains in this section of the country are not succeeded, as is usual, by corresponding valleys. These table-lands, although destitute of wood and water, are covered by a rich growth of luxuriant grass, which adapts them for pasturage. It is questionable whether any part can be relied on for cultivation.

"The space between the eastern base of the Staked Plain and the Red River, at the parallel of 34°, is occupied by that portion of Northern Texas drained by the tributaries of the Colorado, the Brazos, the Trinity, and the Red Rivers. With rapidly increasing advantages as you proceed eastward from the Llano Estacado, this region is well timbered, well watered, and possessed of a soil of extreme fertility, capable of sustaining a dense population. The entire country is so gently undulating in its surface, and presents such an abundant and well distributed supply of wood and water, that it can be traversed in any direction with trains of wagons, and is of so genial a climate that little choice of the seasons is considered in undertaking an expedition through it. A great portion of the timber of the region intersected by the Colorado and its tributaries along this route is the mezquite, which, about thirty feet in height, and from six to ten inches in diameter, divides about equally with the prairie land this entire district of country. The Brazos and its tributaries are better supplied with oak timber of a larger size; the country is more undulating, and the water more abundant. Immense coal-beds, of good quality, crop out along the valley of the river, and every natural advantage of soil and climate is offered to the emigrant. A military post (Fort Belknap) has been established upon this stream, near the 33d parallel. But by far the richest and most beautiful district of country I have ever seen, in Texas or elsewhere, is that watered by the Trinity and its tributaries. Occupying east and west a belt of one hundred miles in width, with about equal quantities of prairie and timber intersected by numerous clear, fresh streams and countless springs, with a gently undulating surface of prairie and oak openings, it presents the most charming views, as of a country in the highest state of cultivation; and you are startled at the summit of each swell of the prairie with a prospect of groves, parks, and forests, with intervening plains of luxuriant grass, over which the eye in vain wanders in search of the white village or the stately house, which seem alone wanting to the scene.

"The delusion was so perfect, and the recurrence of these charming views so constant, that every swell of the ground elicited from the party renewed expressions of surprise and admiration.

"It may seem strange that a region suggestive of such florid description should still remain so nearly uninhabited; but it must be remembered that this part of Texas is yet but partially explored, that it is far from the markets, and that it is still infested by bands of hostile Indians. A full knowledge of its startling beauty, and of its amazing fertility, and the construction of facilities of communication with a market, will soon convert this charming region into a reality, of which nature has exhibited so beautiful a presentment.

"Over a very gentle dividing ridge we descended upon the tributaries of the Red River, and a great increase in quantity and size of timber was immediately apparent. At least four-fifths of the country drained by the tributaries of Red River are covered with timber, and of a size and quality to be favorably compared with any timbered region on this continent.

"The immediate valley of Red River is from two to five miles in width, without prairie in its whole extent in the neighborhood of Preston, covered with large timber of every description, and possessed of a soil of amazing fertility. At some points the surface is covered with a white or red sand, about three inches in depth, below which is a fat dark, vegetable mould, from three to six feet thick, and of the most astonishing richness.

"The valley is being rapidly settled by cotton planters from Tennessee and Mississippi; and although the immediate bottom lands along the river are exceedingly difficult of settlement and culture, from the immense size and quantity of the timber, they are nevertheless preferred to the prairie lands in the vicinity, in consequence of the exceeding fertility of the soil. The river, at the 34th parallel, is about eight hundred yards wide, and is susceptible of steamboat navigation for five or six months of the year.

"Proceeding from this point to the eastward, over a country well watered, well timbered, and of great fertility, and inhabited by whites and partially civilized Indians, who cultivate the soil, we reach at a distance of one hundred and fifty miles, the western frontier of Arkansas.

"Of the seven hundred and eighty miles of distance from the western line of Arkansas to the valley of the Rio Grande, at El Paso, nearly five hundred miles traverse a fertile, well watered, and abundantly timbered region; and of the remaining two hundred and eighty, one hundred and sixty are through a country which although of little agricultural value, except in the immediate valley of the Pecos, is nevertheless admirably adapted to the raising of stock, and offers every desirable facility for travel, at any season of the year."—*Pope's Report*, pp. 15, 16.

That part of the route examined by Lieutenant Parke, between the waters of the Rio Grande, which find their way into the Gulf of Mexico, and those of the Rio Gila, which flow into the Gulf of California, is an elevated and barren plain, whose continuity of surface is here and there interrupted by rugged, isolated mountains, having apparently no connection with any other chain or system. These mountains, like the plain from which they spring, are bleak and bare, and are denominated, from their isolated position, the Lost Mountains. To the eye the plain appears level, but the profile shows that it has in fact an undulating surface, constantly rising and falling so as to form a series of basins, seven in number. The most elevated point of these basins is generally 400 feet above the most depressed point, although in one instance an altitude of 850 feet is reached, and in another 1,200 feet. The mean elevation of this plain above the level of the sea is 4,700 feet; the highest point, which is in the Chiricahui range is 5,180 feet.

The survey by Lieutenant Williamson, from the Rio Gila to the Pacific, indicates the pass of San Gorgonio as that best adapted for the purpose, and San Diego and San Pedro as the points on the Pacific most easily reached. San Diego is the more southerly point, and has the best harbor; that of San Pedro being an open roadstead, and exposed to the full force of the northwest winds, which on the Pacific are the most violent. From this point it is possible, and entirely practicable, to construct a road to San Francisco. Explorations and estimates were made by Lieutenant Williamson for such an extension.

The agricultural character of the route from the Rio Grande to San Diego may be deduced from the following summary by Lieutenant-Colonel Emory.

"The country from the Arkansas to this point, more than twelve hundred miles, in its adaptation to agriculture, has peculiarities which must for ever stamp themselves upon the population which inhabits it. All of North Mexico, embracing New Mexico, Chihuahua, Sonora, and the Californias, as far north as the Sacramento, is, as far as the best information goes, the same in the physical character of its surface, and differs but little in climate or products.

"In no part of this vast tract can the rains of heaven be relied upon, to any extent, for the cultivation of the soil. The earth is destitute of trees, and in great part also of any vegetation whatever.

"A few feeble streams flow in different directions from the great mountains, which in many places traverse this region. These streams are separated, sometimes by plains and sometimes by mountains, without water and without vegetation, and may be called deserts, so far as they perform any useful part in the sustenance of animal life.

"The cultivation of the earth is therefore confined to those narrow strips of land which are within the level of the waters of the streams, and wherever practised in a community with any success, or to any extent, involves a degree of subordination and absolute obedience to a chief, repugnant to the habits of our people.

"The chief who directs the time and the quantity of the precious irrigating water must be implicitly obeyed by the whole community. A departure from his orders, by the waste of water or unjust distribution of it, or neglect to make the proper embankments, may endanger the means of subsistence of many people. He must, therefore, be armed with power to punish promptly and immediately.

"I made many inquiries as to the character of the vast region of country embraced in the triangle formed by the Colorado of the West, the Del Norte, and the Gila; and the information collected will, at some future time, be thrown into notes for the benefit of future explorers, but are not given in this work, as I profess to write only of what I saw.

"From all that I learn, the country does not differ materially in its physical character from New Mexico, except, perhaps, being less denuded of soil and vegetation. The sources of the Salinas, the San Francisco, Azul, San Carlos, and Prieto, tributaries of the Gila, take their rise in it. About their head-waters, and occasionally along their course, are presented sections of land capable of irrigation.

"The whole extent, except on the margin of streams, is said to be destitute of forest-trees. The Apaches, a very numerous race, and the Navajoes, are the chief occupants; but there are many minor bands, who, unlike the Apaches and Navajoes, are not nomadic, but have fixed habitations. Among the most remarkable of these are the Soones, most of whom are said to be *albinos*. The latter cultivate the soil, and live in peace with their more numerous and savage neighbors.



"Departing from the ford of the Colorado in the direction of Sonora, there is a fearful desert to encounter. After, a small town, with a Mexican garrison, is the nearest settlement.

"All accounts concur in representing the journey as one of extreme hardship, and even peril. The distance is not exactly known, but it is variously represented at from four to seven days' journey. Persons bound for Sonora from California, who do not mind a circuitous route, should ascend the Gila as far as the Pimos village, and thence penetrate the province by way of Tucson."

In the construction of a railway by either of the routes indicated, the means of procuring a supply of fuel and water for the use of the road when completed becomes a very important inquiry. In the sketch of the country already given, it is pretty clearly demonstrated that on reliance whatever can be placed upon any part for a permanent supply of wood for fuel. Barren and dreary wastes without a sign of vegetation beyond a few stunted bushes, entirely devoid of the presence of a single tree, are encountered upon every route, and form a principal feature in the scenery. The most that can be expected of these is a precarious supply of fuel for those engaged in the construction of the road, the timber for the work being drawn from the mountain-sides, which here and there, in favored locations, present a forest of respectable size, but which are wholly inadequate to furnish the road with any considerable amount of fuel. Besides, when it is considered that these patches of woodland are separated from one another by hundreds of miles, it becomes obvious that the transportation of wood for fuel from station to station, at such remote distances, must increase its cost to an amount so enormous, as to preclude the possibility of its use for locomotive purposes.

Indeed, so well assured are those who have examined the subject, of the impossibility of procuring a sufficient supply of wood for fuel, that all calculations of running expenses are based upon the theory that coal will be used for locomotive purposes. This must be procured from Puget's Sound on the Pacific, and from the mines of Missouri and Texas on the Mississippi slope. A deposit of coal is said to exist on Green river, but to what extent is unknown. The rocks in which this deposit is found are such as to give a coal of the tertiary formation. As a general rule, the coal of this period is inferior in quality, and could come into general use only in the absence of a better article. The steamers on the Lake of Geneva, in Switzerland, however, are supplied with this description of coal, and use it in preference to wood. No examination has yet been made of the Green river coal deposit, to determine the thickness of the seams and the quality of coal. The mere fact that a coal deposit exists on that river is of less importance than at the first view may be imagined. In regard to the American coal-fields, it may be assumed that the deposit is not only greatest in quantity, but best in quality, in the Alleghany mountains, and that

as it recedes westward it becomes earthy and in all other respects inferior. The State of Iowa is said to contain twenty-five thousand square miles underlaid by the coal formation, and yet not a single seam in the whole of this vast deposit is known to exist over three and a half feet in thickness, or one which from its quantity and quality is likely to induce capitalists to embark any considerable sum in its development and working as a commercial operation. This single illustration is sufficient to show how little reliance is to be placed on the mere announcement that coal exists on Green river. When it is taken into consideration that one-fifth of the entire working expense of a railroad is chargeable to the fuel account, it may be readily seen under what disadvantages a long line of railroad would be operated, which drew its supply of fuel from sources so remote as largely to enhance its price at either terminus, and which had no intermediate source of supply.

It is possible to procure fuel, at great expense, remote from a railroad, but water cannot be so obtained. It must be found at fixed points, as it is needed along the line of the road, and hence the means of procuring an adequate amount of water becomes even a more important inquiry than that of fuel. This question has not yet been satisfactorily answered. The vast arid wastes over which the road must necessarily find its way, stretch for hundreds of miles without the presence of any considerable stream. Refreshing showers seldom fall in these elevated plains, and mountain streams are rapidly absorbed by the parched earth of the less elevated lands. The streams found in the basins enclosed by ranges of mountains on either side, frequently lose themselves or become subterranean. Soon after emerging from the rocky chasms in which they are collected, they commonly spread themselves over a large surface, and disappear in the broad belts of sand and gravel which they traverse. It sometimes occurs that they reappear after their subsidence into the earth, and alternately are lost and visible for several miles, until completely absorbed. This phenomenon has led Dr. Blake to the conclusion, that a considerable amount of water may be collected by sinking wells. The peculiar position of the strata, most of which have a decided inclination, together with the success met with at San Francisco and in its neighborhood, have inclined him to the opinion, that the necessary amount of water for the uses of the road, in case of the failure of ordinary wells, may be obtained from Artesian wells by boring.

This view of Dr. Blake coincides with that expressed by Dr. Parry, the geologist to the Mexican boundary survey.

"The natural supplies of fresh water for these open wastes are derived from uncertain accumulations of rain-products in small reservoirs, or occasional per-

manent springs, the latter generally occupying situations in close proximity to mountain ranges.

"All these basins not directly connected with the Rio Grande valley receive and absorb the drainage of their respective mountain boundaries, except in the higher elevations, rarely showing running water, unless as the temporary result of local rains.

"The above indications are favorable to the formation of aqueous substrata, which may be reached by sufficiently deep boring, and when located at the lower depressions of these basin areas, the water would necessarily be brought to the surface."

Notwithstanding the opinions above expressed, the whole subject is involved in speculation, and can be satisfactorily determined only by submitting it to the test of actual experiment. A party under the command of Lieutenant Parke is understood to be engaged in making borings on the route surveyed by him, and may be able upon its return to present us with new facts. Whether the water of these desert regions will ever be used for railway purposes or not, the explorations under his charge, and the wells which may be constructed by him, will be of incalculable benefit to those whom fortune or choice may cast as travellers upon these dreary wastes.

Whatever may be the ultimate fate of the railroad, for whose construction these preliminary explorations have been undertaken, there can be no doubt as to the great advantages resulting from the explorations themselves. One of the most important of these is the general knowledge imparted of the vast tract of country subjected to the scrutiny of the various parties sent out under the auspices of the government. It is true that much of the romance which had attached itself to this part of the country in its unexplored state has been dissipated; but in its stead we have an accumulation of facts, which constitute a substantial contribution to our knowledge, and are of much greater importance in determining the course of the hardy pioneer, than any of the ideal descriptions upon which he was previously obliged to depend—descriptions which but too frequently served to lure him on to certain disappointment, and perhaps to ruin.

Our rich possessions west of the 99th meridian have turned out to be worthless, so far as agriculture is concerned. They never can entice a rural population to inhabit them, nor sustain one if so enticed. We may as well acknowledge this and act upon it—legislate upon it. We may as well admit that Kansas and Nebraska, with the exception of the small strip of land upon their eastern borders, are perfect deserts, with a soil whose constituents are of such a nature as for ever to unfit them for the purposes of agriculture, and are not worth an expenditure of angry feeling as to who shall or who shall not inhabit them. We may as well admit that Washington Territory, and Oregon, and Utah, and New Mexico, are, with the

exception of a few limited areas, composed of mountain chains and unfruitful plains; and that, whatever route is selected for a railroad to the Pacific, it must wind the greater part of its length through a country destined to remain forever an uninhabited and dreary waste.

### FOREIGN IMMIGRATION TO THE UNITED STATES.

We referred in our last to the excellent work of Mr. Bromwell, of the State Department, upon this subject, published by Redfield, New York. It should be in the hands of all who would study the subject. We are permitted to extract a few pages and statistics.—Ed.

#### PROGRESS AND EXTENT OF IMMIGRATION PRIOR TO 1819.

We will first consider very briefly the progress and extent of immigration to the United States of America prior to 1819, the year in which the present official history begins. As, on this point, no authentic information exists, it must be determined by such evidence as statisticians of that period possessed, and by the relations then existing between the United States and the countries from which persons emigrated.

The current of migration commenced its flow from England, Ireland, and Scotland, and from Germany through the French and British ports. It was subject to many fluctuations during a part of this time, but continued with considerable uniformity, it is believed, until 1806.

Mr. Samuel Blodgett, a statistician of more than ordinary research and accuracy, wrote in 1806, while every fact in regard to immigration was fresh in the minds of the people, that from "the best records and estimates at present attainable," the immigrants arriving in this country did not average, for the ten years from 1784 to 1794, more than 4,000 per annum.\*

During 1794, 10,000 persons were estimated to have arrived in the United States from foreign countries.†

In 1818, Dr. Adam, Seybert, member of the House of Representatives from Pennsylvania, in his exceedingly valuable "Statistical Annals" of the United States, wrote to the following effect:—

"Though we admit that ten thousand foreigners may have arrived in the United States in 1794, we can not allow that they did so, in an equal number, in any preceding or subsequent year, until 1817;" and he assumes that 6,000 persons arrived in the United States from foreign countries in each

\* Blodgett's Statistical Manual, page 75.

† Cooper's Information respecting America. London, 1795.



year from 1790 to 1810 :\* to him, and to the authorities he consulted, this average seemed a generous one.

During the ten years from 1806 to 1816, extensive immigration to the United States was precluded by the unfriendly relations at that time existing between Great Britain, France, and the United States.

England maintained the doctrine, and for a while enforced it with success, that "a man, once a subject, was always a subject." This deterred many from emigrating to this country from the British empire. Numbers had previously come for the purpose of entering the American merchant-service, and numbers still might have come which the fear of British impressment frightened from carrying out their design.

Another influence retarded immigration: in 1806, Great Britain issued a decree declaring the coasts of France in a state of blockade. A retaliatory decree was, in November of the same year, issued by France, declaring the British isles in a state of blockade.

To these restrictions on commerce—and, consequently, on the unobstructed passage from Europe—succeeded the British orders in council, and the Milan decree of Napoleon.

In March, 1809, the United States law was passed prohibiting for one year intercourse with Great Britain and France.

In 1810, the Napoleonic decrees were annulled; and the commerce of the United States had, in 1811, fairly commenced with France, but only to have their vessels fall into the hands of the British.

Preparations were now making for active hostilities, and on the 18th of June, 1812, war was formally declared by the United States to exist with Great Britain.

The German emigration sensibly felt this unfavorable condition of affairs, inasmuch as the Germans embarked principally at the ports of Liverpool and Havre; facilities for migrating thence to this country being more numerous, and the expense of the voyage less onerous. Thus, from 1806, was the stream of emigration pent up at its fountain.

In February, 1815, peace was concluded between the United States and Great Britain; and, after several months requisite to restore tranquility and to secure the confidence of those desiring to leave the Old World, the tide resumed its flow,† and with a speed greatly accelerated: as, from authentic information, collected principally at the several customhouses, it ap-

\* Seybert's Annals, pp. 28 and 29.

† Even in 1816 emigration was to some extent impeded. An act of the British Parliament allowed vessels to carry from Great Britain and Ireland to the United States only one passenger for every five tons, while it allowed vessels to carry to other foreign countries one passenger for every two tons.

pears that, during the year 1817, not less than 22,240 persons arrived at ports of the United States from foreign countries. This number included American citizens returning from abroad.\*

In no year previous to that had one-half so many foreign passengers reached our shores. Many sufferings were incident to a voyage across the Atlantic in a crowded emigrant-vessel; and there were no laws of the United States either limiting the number of persons which a passenger ship or vessel should be entitled to carry, or providing any measures for the health or accommodation of the passengers. The subject seemed to deserve the immediate attention of Congress. In 1818, (March 10,) Louis M'Lane, of Delaware, reported to the House of Representatives a bill "regulating passenger ships and vessels," which was read twice and referred.†

In December of the following session it was called up by Thomas Newton, of Virginia, who explained the necessity of its passage. It was read a third time and passed by the House.

After receiving amendments from both the Senate and House, it was finally passed, and approved March 2, 1819.

In compliance with a requirement of this act, collectors of the customs have reported quarter-yearly to the Secretary of State the number of passengers arriving in their collection-districts by sea from foreign countries; also the sex, age, and occupation, of such passengers, and the country in which they were born. Annual reports, embracing that information, have, in conformity with the same act, been communicated to Congress by the Secretary of State; and, as before indicated, from these reports, chiefly, this history has been compiled.

The following statement exhibits the

*Progress and Extent of Immigration to the United States, from September 30, 1819, to December 31, 1855.*

PERIOD OF YEARS.				Total Number of Passengers arriving.	Of Foreign Birth.
During the	10 years ending	Sept. 30, 1829.....		151,636	128,502
" "	10½ " "	Dec. 31, 1839.....		572,716	538,381
" "	9½ " "	Sept. 30, 1849.....		1,479,407	1,427,397
" "	6½ " "	Dec. 31, 1855.....		2,279,078	2,118,404
" "	36½ " "	" " " " " "		4,482,887	4,212,624

The country having the largest emigration is, doubtless, Ireland; for, in addition to the 747,930 persons arriving from the United Kingdom, known to have been born in Ireland, it is safe to assume that, of the 1,348,682 others born, as indefi-

\* Seybert, p. 29.

† See Annals of Congress, 1818 and 1819.

nately stated, in "Great Britain and Ireland," arriving in the United States, 1,000,000 were born in Ireland alone, thus making 1,747,930 as the total Irish emigration.

Next in numerical order comes Germany; England, third; and France, fourth.

The emigration of Chinese to this country was very inconsiderable until 1854, previous to which year the aggregate number known to have arrived was only 88. In that year, however, 13,100 came to the United States; and, in 1855, 3,526; all of whom, with the exception of a single passenger, landed at the port of San Francisco: 15,950 were males, and were designated in the returns of the collector as "Laborers."

As regards passengers from British America, the fact may be deemed worthy of mention, that many of them, especially of those arriving during the last four years, are known to have come with the intention of returning, and not of residing in the United States. The number of such can not, however, be determined.

Finally, to the 4,212,624 passengers of foreign birth arriving in the United States since September 30, 1819, may be added 250,000 arriving before that time, making the total since the close of the revolution 4,462,624.

#### *Comparative Statement.*

Countries where born.	Total arrivals.	Countries where born.	Total arrivals.
England.....	207,492	West Indies.....	35,317
Ireland.....	747,930	China.....	16,714
Scotland.....	34,559	East Indies.....	101
Wales.....	4,782	Persia.....	7
Great Britain and Ireland	1,348,682	Asia.....	16
France.....	188,725	Liberia.....	14
Spain.....	11,251	Egypt.....	4
Portugal.....	2,049	Morocco.....	5
Belgium.....	6,991	Algiers.....	2
Prussia.....	35,995	Barbary States.....	4
Germany.....	1,206,087	Cape of Good Hope.....	2
Holland.....	17,583	Africa.....	118
Denmark.....	3,059	Azores.....	1,288
Norway and Sweden.....	29,441	Canary Islands.....	278
Poland.....	1,318	Madeira Islands.....	203
Russia.....	938	Cape Verde Islands.....	22
Turkey.....	123	Sandwich Islands.....	59
Switzerland.....	31,071	Society Islands.....	5
Italy.....	7,185	Australia.....	20
Greece.....	108	St. Helena.....	14
Sicily.....	338	Ile of France.....	3
Sardinia.....	706	South Sea Islands.....	79
Corsica.....	9	Not stated.....	157,537
Malta.....	116	United States.....	270,213
Europe.....	526		
British America.....	91,699		
South America.....	5,440		
Central America.....	640		
Mexico.....	15,969		

Total arrivals during the  
36½ years ending De-  
cember 31, 1855..... 4,462,624

## STATISTICS AND GEOGRAPHY OF THE PRODUCTION OF IRON.

One of our poets told us that Basil, the Blacksmith, was

"A mighty man in the village, and honored of all men;  
 "For, since the birth of time, throughout all ages and nations,  
 "Has the craft of the smith been held in repute by the people."

How far this feeling of respect for my calling has weighed with you in honoring me with a request to prepare a paper on iron, I know not; but it is quite certain that from the earliest days there has been a peculiar charm about the business, which has left its traces in the myths of the ancients, and in those mystical legends of the middle ages, that have survived the decay of empires and feudal institutions, and even to this day delight the young at the Christmas fireside.

In one of the earliest treatises on alchemy, we are told how the "Sons of God," who first fell from their high estate through love for "the daughters of men," imparted to their giant offspring the secrets of extracting the metals from the earthy calx; and who of us have forgotten with what intense interest our childhood was absorbed in those wonderful stories of King Solomon, in which this race of genii are represented as toiling, imprisoned in the bowels of great mountains, to produce the metals which enriched the wise king, and enabled him to build the Temple of God "so that there was neither hammer, nor axe, nor any tool of iron heard *in* the house while it was in building."

Nor is it strange that to the young or the ignorant, the idea of magical power should attach to those who, penetrating into the depths of the earth, shatter the mighty rocks with explosive power, rivaling the thunderbolts of Jove, and by the combined action of earth and air, and fire and water, reduce from the dull ore the glowing vivid metal, till then

"In stony fetters fixed and motionless."

It is a perpetual struggle against resisting nature, and the victory is only won by turning her own gigantic powers against herself, so that the ancients called in the aid of Gods to account for the triumph; and for the gift which, as Æschylus has it, "has shown itself a teacher of every art to mortals, and a great resource," made the unhappy Prometheus expiate the offence in fetters on the rude Caucasian rock.

But in our day the interest which attaches to the production of iron rests upon a better appreciation of the difficulties to be surmounted; and upon a full knowledge that iron is the main-spring of modern civilization, Locke has told us that "he who first made known the uses of iron may be truly styled the Father of Arts, and the Author of Plenty;" and in our own day, Hood thus wittily sums up its multifarious applications:—



"The universality of the employment of iron is so manifest, especially in this country, that if any period has deserved the title of the Iron Age, to none can it be so characteristically applied as to the present. The seas are traversed by iron ships; the land travelled over by iron carriages upon iron roads. We have iron engines employed for nearly every mechanical purpose. Water is brought along our streets by iron pipes, and all our thoroughfares illumined by means of gas conveyed to us through a similar channel. Many of our houses have iron floors and iron roofs, whilst the windows are closed with iron shutters. In short, from the gigantic steamer which crosses the Atlantic, to the smallest of ornamental shirt buttons, this metal has become so prevalent, that the country ought to be ticketed, like a laundress' window, with 'Ironing done here.' But the wealth and comfort arising from this state make it equivalent to the much more lauded advantages of the Golden Age."

The hand that penned these characteristic words was scarce cold in the grave before that great temple of industry, reared like a creation of magic, had been opened in the metropolis of the world, to receive the products of every clime, and exhibit the fruits of human ingenuity to admiring thousands. Fond enthusiasts dreamed that the reign of universal and perpetual peace had been inaugurated, and that the material which had been used for dealing out death and destruction was now for evermore consecrated to human progress, and a higher civilization. But scarce had the last notes of the national anthem died in the ears of the heterogeneous mass of hearers who were assembled from all nations and tongues of the earth to witness the magnificent closing of the most magnificent spectacle which mankind has ever seen, when the rude alarm of war burst upon astonished Europe; and all the energy, skill, and genius of the world were called into play to devise new methods of applying iron to the work of destruction. Steamers hurried masses of men and supplies with a speed which throws the achievements of Napoleon into the shade. A railway is constructed from the sea to the beleagured city; the steam-whistle shrieks its wild requiem over the dead and dying as it conveys them by the car load to hospitals, sanctified by the holy and heroic presence of woman. The telegraph carries the swift message of death, from the entrenched camps to the cabinets of ministers, a thousand miles away. The tidings of victory or defeat are heard by a listening world before the great cannons have ceased to roar. For days and weeks together, the mouths of these gigantic monsters vomit forth iron hail, until walls are battered down by the resistless shock of twenty thousand tons of cannon balls; and the stern old Russian, who had stood un-

moved while he lost his thousand men a day, is compelled to retire before what he graphically describes as "the fire of hell." It is the terrible energy with which iron has been employed in this contest, rather than any skill in strategy or diplomacy, which now enables the world to felicitate itself with the prospect of peace after the lapse of two short years, instead of having to endure all the miseries of a struggle protracted for thirty years, as in all former European contests. But my limits on this occasion do not permit to trench on the domain of the moralist, nor even of the man of science. My investigation will have reference solely to the statistics and geography of the production of iron; and if, as I fear, the results be found dry, and lacking in originality, my apology must be found in the name and objects of this Society, and in the consideration, so well stated by another, "that statistics are far from being the barren array of figures ingeniously and laboriously combined into columns and tables, which many persons are apt to suppose them. They constitute rather the ledger of a nation, in which, like the merchant in his books, the citizen can read, at one view, all the results of a year, or a period of years, as compared with other periods, and deduce the profit and loss which has been made in morals, education, wealth, or power."

And first, I shall attempt to give you a succinct account of the growth of the business. Iron was known to the ancients; but being the most difficult of the metals to reduce, it came into use after the other metals were well known. Tubal-Cain is admitted to have been the first manufacturer; but on so small a scale was his business established, that even in the days of Homer, a piece of iron which a single man could throw was offered as the most precious prize at the games in honor of the death of Patrocles.

"Let him whose might can hurl this bowl, arise:  
Who farthest hurls it, takes it as his prize."

When Porus came from the land of gold and pearls and diamonds to propitiate the conqueror of the world, it is recorded that his most precious gift to Alexander was a piece of Indian iron weighing forty pounds. In the days of Pliny it had come into more general use; and he is equally eloquent in describing its application in the arts of peace, as he is indignant at its perversion to the purposes of war. But it was not until long after the Christian era that its production was aided by any mechanical appliances worthy of the name. It is exceedingly doubtful whether cast-iron, (carburet of iron,) was known until the 13th century after Christ. Previous to this time, iron was made by simply placing the ore and charcoal in layers in a rude oven, and smelting it by a blast forced in by a common bellows, worked by the hand of man.

We are accustomed to regard the crusades purely as an outburst of religious enthusiasm at a time when the civilization of the world afforded no outlet for the pent-up energies of men, and to attribute to them no other practical result than the impoverishment of the nobles, and the consequent liberation of the serfs. But it is probable that the returning crusaders brought back with them the knowledge of the manufacture of cast-iron, thus identifying the birth of modern civilization with the birth-place of that divine religion which has accomplished for the moral elements of our nature what the use of iron has for the practical progress of the race.

The knowledge thus acquired was soon put to use throughout Europe; but it surprises the inquirer to find that in the year 1740, only 116 years ago, the total production of iron in England amounted to not more than 17,350 tons, made by fifty-nine furnaces, giving an annual production of 294 tons to each furnace. At that time I am satisfied that the total production of Europe did not exceed 100,000 tons, of which 60,000 tons were made in Sweden and Russia, and one-half of this was imported into England. The annual consumption of iron in England was, therefore, 15 pounds per head of population, and in Europe did not exceed 2 pounds per head. The destruction of wood, caused by this insignificant product, was so rapid, that the business of making iron was likely to be extinguished, when, as is the universal rule, the evil which was dreaded gave birth to a remedy which imparted new life to the production, and has enabled it to reach its present gigantic proportions. This remedy was the substitution of pit, or *mineral* coal, for charcoal. To Dud Dudley, an Englishman, is due the merit of this discovery, or at least of its practical application; and to him, more than any other man, belongs the title of the "Father of the Iron Trade." But his discovery made little progress for the period of 100 years. In 1750 it came into general use; and in 1760 the first blowing cylinders were erected by Smeaton, at the Carron Iron Works. A single furnace was there made to yield 1,000 tons per annum, or three times as much as the average of charcoal furnaces. This wonderful result agitated the whole industrial world, so that even the poet Burns came to see the grand spectacle; and being refused admission, gave vent to his indignation in these rather indiscriminate lines:—

We cam na here to view your warks,  
 In hopes to be mair wisè;  
 But only lest we gang to hell,  
 It may be nae surprise.  
 But when we tirl'd at your door,  
 Your porter dought na bear us;  
 So may, should we to hell's yetts come  
 Your billy, Satin, sair us.

[A. D., 1797.]

The total production of Great Britain, in 1788, had reached 68,300 tons, making an increase of 50,950 tons in 48 years, *i. e.*, 300 per cent. At this time Watts' great invention of the steam-engine was introduced; and emancipating the iron works from dependence on sites where there was water power, produced so great an increase in the business, that in 1796 the production had reached 125,079 tons, and in 1806, only 10 years later, it had increased to 258,206 tons, each furnace making an average of 1,546 tons per annum; but the average of the best constructed was 2,615 tons per annum, or nine times as great as the charcoal furnaces only 60 years before. At this date, only fifty years ago, I am satisfied that the annual make of the whole world did not exceed 500,000 tons, one-half of the present annual production the United States. The annual consumption of iron per head in Great Britain had reached 40 pounds, showing conclusively a wonderful progress in the arts of civilization—the consumption having nearly trebled in less than 60 years.

These were the results of the inventions of Dud Dudley and of Watts. But in 1783 and 1784, Henry Cort, also an Englishman, inaugurated a new era in the iron business, by his invention of the process of puddling (*i. e.*, of converting cast-iron into wrought iron in reverberatory furnaces,) and of reducing the rough masses thus obtained into finished bars, by grooved rollers. The history of this great benefactor of his race is an instructive one. Born to a competence, well educated in the science of his day, attracted to the iron business by an enthusiasm which no obstacles could daunt, he devised two improvements, so essential, that it is not too much to say that the iron business could not exist without them—that railroads would be impracticable—that iron ships could not be built—because the wealth of the universe would not be adequate to the production of iron on a scale now rendered essential by the wants of civilized life. He expended \$250,000 in putting his invention into practice; he proved its merits; he built works for himself and others, which were eminently successful; he had licensed a production which would inevitably have produced to him one of the largest fortunes which human ingenuity has ever achieved. When his associate, a deputy paymaster in the navy, was proved to be a defaulter to the extent of £27,000, the patents were seized by the British Government; but instead of being prosecuted, were kept tied up with the usual red tape, in the office of some government official, "without the slightest benefit either to the state or the patentee," so that the fruits of a life of honest labor were lost, and Cort was reduced to beggary—a monument of the sad results, on the one hand, of a breach of official trust, and on



the other, of official routine and delay. William Pitt finally accorded to him a pension of £200 per annum, which he lived to enjoy for six years, dying broken-hearted, and the British iron trade generously raised £1,000 for the relief of his widow. And this was the temporal reward of one, the immediate results of whose inventions have been summed up by an abler hand than mine, as follows:

"In 1782, the total quantity of British hammered iron exported did not exceed 427 tons. In 1854, the total quantity of pig iron exported was 293,074 tons; puddled and rolled iron, 883,237 tons; to which, if one-third be added for waste in conversion, the real quantity exported will be 1,177,649 tons—total British iron exported, 1,470,723 tons.

"In 1782, the total make of British hammered bar iron did not amount to 10,000 tons—too inferior in quality for exportation beyond 427 tons. In 1853, the total make of puddled and rolled iron was very little short of 3,000,000 tons, which, at the cost of foreign iron previous to 1783 and 1784, averaging, exclusive of duty, £40 13s. 4d. per ton, would be not less than £92,000,000 sterling; whereas, by puddled and rolled iron, at the average cost not exceeding £10 per ton at the most, it has cost only £30,000,000 sterling, thus saving in one year £62,000,000 sterling, as compared with foreign bar iron; being all made out of materials previously useless, and by British labor. For the last 66 years, including money less paid to foreign countries for bar iron, and more received from them for 8,000,000 tons of British puddled and rolled iron, besides 17,000,000 tons for home consumption, extra profits to the iron manufacturer, £37,000,000 sterling, and profit to the mineral owners at least £12,000,000 sterling, the whole saving to the country is equal to £300,000,000 sterling, besides feeding and clothing four generations of workmen and their families, or more than 600,000 people for sixty-six years. These are the services of Henry Cort."

I have detained you too long from the main subject; but less I could not say, without being treacherous to the memory of a man to whom justice has never been done.\*

Since the time of Cort, with the exception of the introduction of the hot blast, in 1829, and of the use of anthracite coal in 1837, of which I shall have occasion hereafter to speak, no material improvement has been made in the modes of making iron, and in 1806 all the processes were in use which now prevail in the best constructed works. The growth of the business was thenceforth very rapid, limited only by the consumption of product.

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\* I have since learned that a subscription is on foot in England for the benefit of Cort's descendants.

In 1818, the product of Great Britain

	was estimated at	.....	300,000 tons.	
" 1820,	"	.....	400,000	" (Mushet.)
" 1823,	"	.....	452,066	" (Official.)
" 1825,	"	.....	581,367	"

At which date the yield of each furnace averaged 2,228 tons, being an increase of 45 per cent. in 19 years, chiefly due to improved machinery, larger furnaces, and better blasts.

In 1830, the annual make was 678,417 tons. The use of the hot blast now enabled raw coal to be substituted for coke, by which the consumption of coal was largely reduced, *i. e.*, from 8 tons  $1\frac{1}{2}$  cwt. to 2 tons  $18\frac{1}{2}$  cwt. for making one ton of pig iron in Scotland, to whose ores and coals it was found to be chiefly applicable. As the present make of Scotland is now over 800,000 tons, the annual saving in coal is nearly five millions of tons, or about the quantity mined on the Atlantic slope of the United States. It is worthy of note that Neilson was compelled to enforce his patent by legal process against the combined strength of the trade; and it was only after years of vexatious delay that his patent was affirmed on appeal to the House of Lords, and that he received the reward of his great discovery. It is recorded that the Bairds, the princely proprietors of the Gartsherrie Works, and who, from being day-laborers in a coal mine, have achieved their present position as the makers of over 100,000 tons of pig iron per annum, and as the richest manufacturers in the world, settled Neilson's damages for infringement, by a check on the Bank of England for £150,000 sterling. So marked was the effect of this discovery, that

	In 1836, the make amounted to	1,000,000 tons.	
	" 1839,	"	" 1,248,781 "
	" 1840,	"	" 1,396,400 "
	" 1845,	"	" 1,512,500 "
<i>official.</i>	" 1847,	"	" 1,999,608 "
	" 1852,	"	" 2,701,000 "
<i>(Truran.)</i>	" 1854,	"	" 3,585,906 "

Made by 599 furnaces, giving an average to each of 6,000 tons, being over  $2\frac{1}{2}$  times the yield of each furnace in 1825. This incredible product was achieved by the direct labor of 238,000 men, and 2,120 steam-engines, of an aggregate power of 242,000 horses, and the value of the gross product was \$125,000,000. If you will pause to consider the infinite variety of uses to which this iron has been applied, for it was all consumed at least six months ago, you may perhaps be able to form some idea of the millions of human beings whose labor it has absorbed, and to whom it has given bread, especially when I tell

you, (I quote the *British Quarterly*,) "that a bar of iron, valued at \$5, worked into horse shoes, is worth \$10 50; needles, \$55; penknife blades, \$3,285; shirt buttons, \$29,480; balance springs of watches, \$250,000;" all of which increase in value is given by the application of human labor.

To make this product, and reduce rather more than half of it to bars, there were dug from the bowels of the earth, and consumed—

12,346,000 tons of iron ore,
2,450 000 " " limestone,
20,146,000 " " coal.

Tons... 44,942,000

A sum total before which the imagination stands appalled.

I am inclined to believe that the production for 1855 did not materially exceed the figures for 1854. Even the British lion pauses to take breath; but it is rather from the difficulty of providing materials on short notice, than from any unwillingness to supply the world with all the iron which is wanted for its annual consumption. I shall now endeavor to ascertain what that amount is, by succinctly stating the make of other European countries, as nearly as I can ascertain the same.

	Date.	Tons.
England.....	1855.....	3,585,906
France.....	1845—438,900 tons, estimated	650,000
Belgium.....	1855.....	255,000
Russia.....	1849-'51—191,492 estimated..	300,000
Sweden.....	1850-'52—124,169 " ..	157,000
Norway.....	1855.....	22,500
Austria.....	1847—165,776.....	200,000
Prussia.....		400,000
Balance of Germany.....		200,000
Elba and Italy.....		72,000
Spain.....		27,000
Denmark, and balance of Europe.....		20,000
United States.....		1,000,000
		<hr/> 6,889,906

The present annual production of the world does not, therefore, exceed 7,000,000 tons, of which Great Britain produces rather more than one-half.

Assuming the population of the world to be 900,000,000, the production, and of course the consumption, is at the rate of about 17 pounds per head.

In 1740, when we have the most reliable data, the consumption of iron did not amount to one pound per head. But the

great fact to which I wish to call your attention, in order to deduce the practical results at which this paper aims, is the distribution of the present consumption among the nations of the world. In order to determine this point, I have made very careful calculations, which show the following result:—

Nations.	Production per head.	Consumption per head.
England.....	287 lbs.	144 lbs.
United States.....	84 “	117 “
France.....	40 “	60 “
Sweden and Norway..	92 “	30 “
Belgium.....	136 “	70 “
Austria.....	12½ “	15 “
Russia.....	10 “	10 “
Switzerland.....	— “	22 “
Prussia.....	50 “	50 “
Germany; Zoll Verein.	50 “	50 “
Spain.....	4½ “	5 “

Turkey, and the uncivilized portions of the world, too little to be calculated.

A careful examination of this table will demonstrate conclusively that the consumption of iron is a social barometer by which to estimate the relative height of civilization among nations; for considering in what practical civilization consists (I exclude æsthetic civilization from this species of estimate,) measuring by the actual comforts and conveniences with which social life is surrounded, what philosophic traveller, or student, will not classify the nations of the world precisely as the table arranges them: England first, United States second, Belgium third, France fourth, Germany fifth, Switzerland and Sweden about on a par, Austria next, then Russia, Spain, and Turkey, and the great outlying regions of barbarism?

You will not fail to observe another fact, that the large consumers are large producers in every case—a fact which a little familiarity with the laws of trade and industry will show to be inevitable.

It is plain that the consumption of iron is rapidly on the increase, as well from the progress in the arts of life as from the increase of population, and the steady march of Christianity and civilization, like twin-sisters, into the regions of barbarism. This consideration has an important practical value in determining what future demand will be made upon the iron-making resources of the world; for, if it were as highly civilized as Great Britain, mankind would consume as much iron per head, viz: 144 pounds, which would make a total annual consumption of about sixty millions of tons, or nearly seven times the present product.



How much time will be required to bring the world to such a degree of civilization, it is not for me to decide; but it is apparent that when it reaches this point the annual consumption of iron will be over one hundred millions of tons; for it is to be remembered also, that the annual consumption per head is increasing; that in 115 years it has increased seventeen fold. If the next century should show the same result, the consumption would be 300 pounds per head, requiring an annual make of 140,000,000 of tons.

But the population of the world is rapidly increasing, and in 100 years will probably be nearly doubled, which would raise the consumption to over 200,000,000 of tons per annum. I am aware that common sense stands appalled before these immense figures. Previous to this investigation, I have never allowed myself to look the facts in the face, and I am therefore desirous to submit them to the severest examination. Let me ask you, therefore, to measure the future carefully by the past.

From 1740 to 1855, the production of iron increased seventy fold. If the same rate of increase should prevail for 115 years to come, the annual make would reach 490,000,000 of tons, and it is to be observed that the ratio of increase has been an increasing one for each period of ten years since 1740, and not a decreasing one. Commencing with 1806, it required till 1824, a period of 18 years, to double the production in Great Britain. By 1836 it was again doubled, requiring a period of only twelve years. In 1847 it was again doubled, requiring eleven years. In 1855, a period of eight years, it had risen from 2,000,000 to 3,500,000, at which rate it would double in ten years.

Now, if the production of the world were to double only once in twenty years, the make, in

1875, would be.....	14,000,000
1895, " .....	28,000,000
1915, " .....	48,000,000
1935, " .....	96,000,000
1955, " .....	192,000,000

Figures, again so enormous as to defy any man of common sense to stand before you and say that they will be realized. And yet, if any one had ventured the prediction in England in 1740, when the make was 17,350 tons, not so much as the yield of the establishment with which I am connected, that in 115 years the make would reach 3½ millions of tons, he would have been regarded as a lunatic, and told that all the men, and all the wealth, and all the mineral resources of Great Britain were not adequate to one-fourth of such an incredible

production. Allow me to apply a further test to this matter. In Great Britain there is one mile of railroad to about eight square miles of surface. In Connecticut the ratio is about one to six. In the State of New York the ratio is about one to twenty. The habitable world would not be ever supplied with the conveniences for travel and transport if one mile of railroad were built for each ten square miles of surface. Now, according to the best authorities, there are 20,000,000 of square miles of habitable surface on the globe, which will ultimately require 2,000,000 miles of railroad. To lay and operate this quantity will require 600,000,000 tons of iron, the annual wear and operation of which will demand at least 60,000,000 tons per annum. The consumption for railroads now absorbs about one-third of the make of iron; and it is apparent that while the use of iron for purposes for which it has been long applied is daily growing, each year brings forward new applications which seem to indicate that there is no practical limit to its use.

View the subject, then, as we may, whether by the history of production of iron for the last 100 years, or by considering the consumption per head and the progress of civilization, applying only the law which we find at work, and which no social Joshua has power to arrest, we are brought to the conclusion that, great as is the present production of iron, it is but in its infancy, and that the very smallest amount which will answer the purposes of the civilized world 100 years hence, will be 100,000,000 tons per annum. How and where, geographically considered, is this enormous quantity, or the half of it, or the quarter of it, to be made?

In order to solve this problem, it is necessary to consider what are the elementary conditions essential to a large production of iron. These are—

*First.* An adequate supply of the requisite raw materials; ore, limestone and mineral coal; for charcoal can only be used as we have seen, to an insignificant extent.

*Second.* These raw materials must be geographically so situated as to be brought cheaply together, for the value of raw material does not more consist in what it is, than in *where* it is—a fact too much overlooked in the mining projects of the day.

*Third.* There must be cheap means of transport to market.

*Fourth.* There must be sufficient density of population to insure labor at a moderate cost.

*Fifth.* There must be adequate capital to build and carry on the works.

*Sixth.* There must be the skill to manage them in the most economical manner,

*Seventh.* There must be indomitable energy and strict integrity in the management; that is to say, the iron business can only exist on a large scale where the people are essentially industrious, intelligent, energetic and honest.\*

### AN APPEAL FOR THE UNION.

Among the able papers elicited by the late Presidential canvass, is the eloquent letter of Robert J. Walker. Whether in all respects we concur with its sentiments can matter but little. Mr. Walker speaks like a patriot and a statesman, and we are glad to preserve his paper in our repository, for future reference.

For the first time in our history such a geographical party is now formed. It is composed exclusively of the States of the North, and is arrayed in violent hostility against the Southern section of the confederacy. It draws a line, clear and distinct, between the North and the South, and wars upon the people and institutions of the latter. It declares the institutions of the South so degraded and infamous that Congress must exclude them from all that vast territory acquired by common blood and treasure, and which is the joint inheritance of all the States of Union. Louisiana (including Kansas and Nebraska) was acquired by Jefferson and saved by Jackson. But the South are no longer held worthy to inherit any portion of that territory, acquired by the illustrious patriot of Virginia, and saved by the immortal hero of Tennessee.

So, too, with all the vast region acquired in the war with Mexico. Two gallant sons of Virginia, Scott and Taylor, were the leaders of those brilliant campaigns. The blood of the South was poured out in copious libations, and mingled freely with the blood of the North upon the many and well fought fields of Mexico. Beside the gallant sons of the North, a heroic regiment of South Carolina was swept by the deadly fire of the Mexican forces. Leader after leader, column after column, of that regiment fell mortally wounded, yet the survivors never wavered, and their arms were crowned with victory. Yet no son of Carolina, or of all the South, is held worthy to possess any of the smallest portion of all that territory acquired from Mexico. From the whole coast of the Pacific the South is already excluded, and now the platform of the sectional party of the North is this: The universal Wilmot proviso—no slave Territory, and no more slave States North or South of the line of the Missouri compromise.

There shall be no division of the common territory, but the North must have the whole. There are fifteen Southern and

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\* The subject will occupy another paper in the Review.

sixteen Northern States, seven organized Territories, and a vast region yet to be organized. The North must have all these, and all our future acquisitions. No matter what may be the voice or vote of the people of the Territory, or when becoming a State. You shall have no voice or vote in the matter, but the North, commanding a Northern majority in the Electoral College, and in Congress, must have the whole.

But it is said the North has the majority, and the South must submit. Has the South no rights, or does she hold them merely at the mercy of a Northern majority? Has the South no claims on the justice of the North, and is it not unjust to exclude the South from all the common territory of the Union?

But this is not a mere question of justice, but of constitutional power. The Constitution was framed and ratified by the States, each voting and acting for itself alone. Thus we became "United States," a confederacy, not a central republic. A confederacy receiving all its power from the States, through an instrument called by them the Constitution, granting therein only certain specified powers, and reserving all others. It is clear, then, that Congress can exercise such powers only as are granted by the Constitution, and that all their laws not based upon the delegated powers are founded on usurpation, and are absolute nullities. Now, the Constitution delegates no power to establish or abolish slavery in the States or Territories. Such is the opinion of the South, and of a large minority (if not majority) of the North. But, it is said, the North claims that such power in the Territories is granted to Congress by the Constitution. The South denies the existence of any such power. How is the question to be decided? Most clearly not by the North or the South, but as a disputed question of constitutional law, by the Supreme Court of the United States.

Now, before the repeal of the Missouri Compromise, the South proposed to carry that line to the Pacific, although it gave them but three degrees and half on that ocean, leaving twelve degrees to the North. That measure passed the Senate, but was voted down in the House by a Northern majority. Thus the North seized the whole coast on the Pacific, nearly equal to our entire front on the Atlantic. The South yielded, but uniformly thereafter, most justly regarded the Missouri Compromise as repudiated by the North, rejected by their votes, and denounced by their addresses. The South next proposed to submit the disputed question of the power of Congress over slavery in the Territories to the adjudication of the Supreme Court of the United States. That measure, known as the Clayton Compromise, also passed the Senate, and was voted down in the House by a Northern majority. This most



wise and patriotic measure submitted this question to the supreme judicial tribunal created by the Constitution, clothed by it with full authority to expound that instrument, and to restrain Congress within the limits of specific granted powers.

But this peaceful and final arbitrament of this question, proposed by the South, was rejected by the North. As a just and necessary consequence of the rejection of both these propositions by the North, the doctrine of non-intervention by the Federal Government was adopted by the conjoint vote of the North and South in both Houses of Congress in 1854, and constitutes the fundamental principle of the Kansas Nebraska bill. While this measure saves the honor of the South, and expunges the provisions violating the Constitution, practically the North will derive great advantages from this measure. Of our seven organized Territories, in only one is there any effort to establish slavery by law, and in this one excepted case, of Kansas, the question would long since have been peacefully decided, but for the unwarranted intermeddling and sectional interference of the propagandist nullifying Legislature of Massachusetts, and the consequences which followed.

If this question, as provided by the Kansas and Nebraska bill, should be left to the people of the Territory in forming their State constitution, it will be determined by soil, climate, production, and the laws which govern the movement of population. Here, the North, aided by its greatly superior numbers, by European non-slaveholding emigrants, by the greater facility of movement, unincumbered by the transport of slaves or the apprehension of their ultimate condition where taken, have great advantages over the South in the settlement of new territories, and should be perfectly satisfied with the principle which leaves the determination of this question, when they become a State, to a majority of the people of the Territory. This is the Kansas-Nebraska bill. This is non-intervention—absolute non-interference by the Federal Government. This is the doctrine of the Constitution. This is that rule of absolute equality of rights of all the States, which lays at the foundation of the confederacy. This is that constitutional right, recognized in the admission of new States, that they come into the Union “upon an equal footing with the other States, in all respects whatsoever.” But that equality does not exist if other States did accede or come into the Union, with or without slavery at their pleasure, and Kansas cannot do so.

There is another reason, not heretofore adverted to, which seems to render it impracticable long to maintain slavery in Kansas. In all the slave States there is a large majority of voters who are non-slaveholders; but they are devoted to the institutions of the South—they would defend them with their

lives—and on this question the South are a united people. This class, composed of many small farmers, of merchants, professional men, mechanics, overseers, and other industrial classes, constitute mainly the patrol of the South, and cheerfully unite in carrying out those laws essential to preserve the institution. Against a powerful minority and constant agitation slavery could not exist in any State. It is a well known fact that this result would have followed soon in several of the slave States but for the unanimity speedily produced there by the abolition agitators and intermeddlers of the North. Now, Kansas is much divided on the question of slavery there; there is a powerful minority there, if not a majority—a party not neutral, but bitterly hostile to the institution; and for this in addition to the reasons before given, I do not believe Kansas will become a slave States. Nor is it important, if the North will adopt the principles of the Kansas bill—absolute non-intervention and non-interference any where by the Federal Government with the question of slavery. The North are in a constantly augmenting majority in Congress and the electoral college, and can carry out all proper measures with an onward career of power and prosperity, if they will only adhere to the principles of justice and of the Constitution.

The so-called “republican” party does not adopt the restoration of the Missouri compromise, but distinctly repudiates that measure, and declares there shall be no slave Territory, and no more slave States anywhere or under any circumstances admitted into the Union, however clear or unanimous may be the will of the people of such State or Territory, or how southern the location. The very question then, on which this party rests, is sectionalism: its candidates are sectional, and anticipating no electoral vote from the South, it looks for success exclusively to the North. Nay, more; it assumes the exclusive right of the North to decide this question, and rejecting all division of the common Territory by any line, it claims the whole for the North—discards the vote of the people of the Territory, either before or in becoming a State, and rejects also the arbitrament of the Supreme Court of the United States. It is conceded that, under the Constitution of the United States, slaves are property, and whether they may or may not be held as such in the Territories, is the great disputed question of constitutional law. It involves rights of property, and as such is peculiarly a judicial question. But the Supreme Court of the Union is to be superseded by the popular suffrage of the North, and these rights of property are thus to be decided. Such a doctrine is not only sectional, aggressive, and belligerent, but agrarian and revolutionary. It is an overthrow of the Constitution, of all its guarantees, and of every conservative

principle on which it is founded. Such a government would not be a constitutional republic, but an elective despotism. But it is said the North are the majority, and such is their will. *Sic volo sic jubeo, stat pro ratione voluntas.* But the votes and will of the French people made Napoleon the Great first their Consul and then their Emperor, and the votes and will of the French people made Napoleon III. first their President, and then clothed him with the imperial purple. Such was the will of the people; but with us the Constitution is the supreme law, and so declared in that instrument, as framed and ratified by the people of each State. That Constitution, after withholding all but the specifically granted powers, distributes their exercise between the legislative, executive, and judicial authorities.

It created and rendered paramount to Congress the decree of the Supreme Court of the United States. It gave to that Court the power to expound the law, and especially that supreme law called the Constitution. But this Court is superseded by the refusal of the North to submit this question to its decision, and the substitution of the will of a Northern majority. If constitutional guarantees and judicial decisions are thus to be overthrown, through the vote of the people, by Congress, why not also in the States, by the State Legislatures, and the doctrine established that all rights of property in the Territories are held subject to the will of the people in the election of Congress; and all rights of property in the States to the will of the people in the election of State Legislatures. If the Constitution is to be disregarded, judicial tribunals superseded, and questions involving rights of property decided at the ballot box by the people, in one case, why not in all others. The doctrine, if asked to be applied to one species of property in Kansas to-day, may be extended to all property everywhere to-morrow. It may be extended to lands, houses, rents, vessels, railroads, debts, stocks, and all other property, and may subject them all to division on confiscation by the decision of the people at the ballot box. If it is right for the North, by the vote of the majority, to deprive the South, who are a minority, of all rights in the common territory of the Union, and to supersede judicial tribunals on disputed points of constitutional law involving rights of property, will not the same principle apply to the State Legislatures in each of the States, and the tenure of all property be decided by the people at each successive election?

The truth is, the black republican platform is revolutionary and agrarian. It involves principles which must strike down the tenure of all property, in every State, as well as in every Territory of the Union. It discards the peaceful arbitramen

of the Supreme Court of the United States, the great conservative feature of our institutions; to overthrow the Constitution and all its guarantees, and substitutes in their place an elective despotism, by which a majority of the people may abolish, divide, or confiscate all property at each successive election. It is said the majority of this tribunal are from the South, and therefore the North cannot trust them with the decision of this great constitutional question. It is but a majority of one, and that one the venerable Chief Justice, born and ever residing in the most conservative of all the States of the South, bordering upon the North, with but very few slaves, from which the institution of slavery is rapidly disappearing, with its great river, the Susquehanna, leading into the heart of Pennsylvania, and traversing large portions of the State of New York—a State, three-fourths of whose trade and intercourse, by bays and rivers, by railroads and canals, is with the free States of this Confederacy.

But if such a tribunal cannot be trusted, in executing the functions assigned to it by the Constitution, because it numbers from the South a majority of one, performing its high duties after full argument upon both sides, deep investigation and research, calm and deliberate, uninfluenced, so far as humanity can be, by passion or prejudice, enlightened and incorruptible, far surpassing any other judicial tribunal upon earth for its talents, wisdom, and legal knowledge; familiar with the Constitution, accustomed for many years to close examination of all its provisions, and to hear them constantly discussed, on both sides, by the great and distinguished jurists of our country, if such a tribunal cannot be trusted, because it holds accidentally, at this time, a majority of one from the South, can such a question be more wisely referred to the popular suffrage, where the North has a majority of fifty-four in the House of Representatives and fifty-six in the Electoral College, and that majority constantly and rapidly augmenting; will this controversy be more wisely decided by the people of the North, a single geographical section, inflamed by sectional passion and prejudice, impelled by newspaper editors, and hustling orators, and political priests, with or without knowledge, with or without patriotism, with or without sincere religion, with or without fanaticism, with or without mature investigation, with or without selfish aspirations? Day by day, from the press, the hustings, the bookstores, the pulpit, the lecture room, the school-house, the theatre, the library, the author's closet, the painter's brush, and the power of song, the North now is, and long has been, trained and educated to hate the South, to despise their institutions, to trample upon their rights, to lacerate their feelings, to calumniate their character, to forget all their



noble deeds in war and in peace, and all their generous qualities and high intellectual endowments, and to dwell only upon their faults, which are the lot of our common humanity.

Nor is this all. A direct appeal is constantly made to the local interests of the North, to the spirit of avarice and love of power and domination, which unfortunately exist more or less in every age and country, and the North are told that it is their interest to monopolize forever, for themselves and children, the whole of the common territory of the Union. Under these circumstances, is the popular suffrage of the North that calm, wise, enlightened, unprejudiced, disinterested tribunal, to which should be assigned the decision of the great question involved in this controversy? In a matter involving the rights, interests, and property of the South, the North is to be the sole judge in its own case, and to decide this matter in its own favor, by its own exclusive suffrage. No man respects popular suffrage more than myself; universal suffrage in this country, on all merely political questions, within the limits of the Constitution. But judicial questions, involving rights of property of incalculable value, our fathers, in founding the Government, for the welfare and safety of all, discarded the French idea of their elective despotism in 1852, or of their popular assemblage in 1789, unrestrained by conservative checks or constitutional guarantees, and deciding through the popular vote upon rights of property.

Division and confiscation, followed by sack, by plunder, and the guillotine, were there the inevitable consequence, and similar doctrines would soon produce here the same dreadful catastrophe. No man respects the press and the pulpit more than myself. In discharging their appropriate functions, they are the highest vocations upon earth—the one for time, the other for eternity. No one deems more useful than myself addresses to the people from the hustings by able orators on political questions. But judicial questions, involving rights of property, requiring impartial investigation, should not be decided by popular suffrage, and especially when, as in this case, the suffrage of one section of the Union, incited by interest, passion, or prejudice, is asked to decide for itself, and in its own favor, by its own exclusive electoral vote, against another great section of the Confederacy.

But this so-called "republican" platform is not only revolutionary and agrarian, but by forming a sectional and geographical party, arraying the North against the South and assailing the bulwarks of the Constitution, it exposes the Union to imminent peril. It is the Constitution that makes the Union, and the subversion of the Constitution is the overthrow of the Union. It is revolution because it changes in

fact our form of government. The parchment upon which the Constitution is written may still remain, the empty forms may still be administered, but even these will soon follow, until not a fragment remains of the Government formed by the patriots and sages of the revolution. If there are those who believe that the Union can long be preserved when the Constitution shall have been subverted and the supreme judicial tribunal of the Union expunged or obliterated, their delusive hopes, their dreams of domination and power, will soon vanish. We have now, not only a sectional and geographical party, based upon a sectional issue, and realizing all the fears of the illustrious Washington, but we have a party advocating doctrines agrarian and revolutionary, subjecting all property to division or confiscation, and expunging the supreme judicial tribunal. I indulge in no menaces against the Union; I make no predictions on a subject of such fearful import. But this I can say, that the South will not and ought not submit to degradation; they will not be despoiled by the North of all rights in the common territory; they will not surrender the constitutional guarantees; they love the Union, but it is the union of the Constitution, the union of equals with equals, and not of sovereign States of the North, with subject States—say, rather, conquered provinces of the South. Rather than submit to this, they will adopt the last alternative, separation, and will then exclaim—

Thy spirit Independence, let me share,  
 Lord of the lion heart and eagle eye;  
 Thy steps I'll follow with my bosom bare,  
 Though rolling clouds should lower along the sky.

Whether residing North or South, whether in public or private life, my best efforts have ever been devoted to maintain the Constitution and preserve the Union. A love of our constitutional Union beats in every pulsation of my heart, and is entwined with every ligament of my frame.

Amid all the cares and enjoyments, the duties and responsibilities of life, it has ever been and is still among my chief pleasures and consolations, to contemplate the present position of my country, and unfolding the scroll of coming years and centuries, to endeavor to realize her advancing greatness and prosperity. I love to look upon her as she is, and as she is to be, if the Constitution and the Union can be maintained and perpetuated. I view her now, with a commercial marine greatly more than doubled within the last ten years, reaching now nearly six millions of tons, already surpassing that of Great Britain, and at the same relative rate of progress, long before the close of this century greatly exceeding that of all the world combined, as long since predicted in my official ro-

ports. I see our mighty expanse of territory, stretching from the Atlantic to the Pacific, from the lakes of the North to the Gulf of Mexico, occupied by nearly thirty millions of people, blessed with a far larger share of happiness, comfort, and prosperity than Providence ever before vouchsafed to man. I see twenty-four thousand miles of railroad, already in operation, (a greater aggregate than all the rest of the world,) stretching from the Atlantic to the Mississippi, already crossing that great river at various points, from north to south, soon to pour their united tides of commerce, travel, and business into the one great trunk line to the Pacific. I see the gold of California and Australia, and a vast portion of the commerce of Asia, passing through this channel to the Atlantic, meeting here the travel and traffic of Europe, and conducting them, together with our own, by this nearest, cheapest, safest, and quickest route to the Pacific.

I see the command of universal commerce passing from Europe to America, and feel that ultimately the nation that commands the commerce of the world must command the institutions of the world, and introduce them finally into general adoption, not by the sword or conquest, but by the moral force of our successful example, striking down the thrones of despots and erecting upon their ruins the glorious fabric of the people's will. I see, too, what in this probable crisis of my country's destiny, it is my duty again to repeat from my Texas letter, that, when Congress and the North shall have wholly ceased to interfere with the question of slavery, the African race gradually disappearing from our borders, passing in part out of our limits to Mexico, and Central and Spanish America, and in part returning to the shores of their ancestors, there, it is hoped, to carry christianity, civilization, and freedom throughout the benighted region of the sons of Ham. Indeed, it is a most remarkable fact that while in their native Africa the race has made no progress, while in the mock republic of Hayti, or brutal despotism of Solouque, in Jamaica and the British West Indies, the emancipated slaves have retrograded to barbarism, while even in our own North the free black race is generally found in the jails, or poor houses, or hospitals, the asylums of the deaf and dumb, the blind or insane, or in pestilent alleys or cellars, amid scenes of destitution and infamy. Yet in Africa alone a colony of emancipated slaves, born and raised in the much abused South, and trained and manumitted by Southern masters, we find the only hope of the African race and the only success they have ever achieved out of bondage.

When any one ventures to admonish the people of the danger of sectional or geographical parties, he is now denounced

as a traitor or disunionist. Washington, Jefferson, Madison, Monroe, Franklin, Hamilton, Jackson, Clay, and Webster, all warned the people of the danger to the Union of sectional and geographical parties. But we, who repeat these warnings, are the true friends of the Union; and those who disregard these admonitions, and form sectional and geographical parties, are the enemies of the Constitution and the Union.

Popular revolutions are always sudden. The dark cloud is seen in the horizon; we hear the muttering thunder nearer and nearer; louder, still louder, it rolls above us—then comes the lightning flash, the crash of the Union, and all is over. We will all then stand amid the ruins of the irrevocable past. We will stand at the dread judgment seat of our country and of the world, the books will be opened and despots pronounce our sentence, the doom of our race, as they believe self-government is a bloody and delusive phantom. No, better had we tear the earth from its orbit, and scatter it in burning fragments through universal space, than meet the curses of our country and mankind, and the horrors of that living death which would follow the dissolution of the American Union. If the surrender of my poor life, the remnant of my waning days, could save my country, gladly, most gladly, would I make the sacrifice—the sacrifice! oh no, the duty, the glory of such an achievement. If my voice could reach even the black “republican” party, I would say re-assemble your convention, re-nominate your candidates if you please, elect them if you can, take all the spoils, but tear down your disunion African platform, ere you endorse it at the polls, and give the country some other platform which will not imperil the Union.

No man values more than myself the countless blessings and benefits of the Union. But just in proportion as are its great advantages will be the unspeakable disasters which would follow from its overthrow. I have never believed in a peaceable dissolution of the Union. If the disaster comes, it will be attended by civil war, and the sword must be the umpire. How can it be peaceful? Who is to arbitrate between the North and the South? Who is to have the army, the navy, the national banner, the public treasure or revenue, the capitol of the Union, the Government archives, and how are we to divide the public lands and common territory? What compact or treaty of peace between the contending parties can take the place of the Constitution, and how or by whom are the new governments to be formed and pacified? No, my countrymen, if in the madness of sectional passions and geographical prejudice, you overthrow the Constitution framed by Washington and the sages of the Revolution, you can never provide adequate substitutes. Those who have achieved our



country's ruin, can never re-gather the scattered fragments of the Constitution, and rebuild the sacred edifice. No, it will be war, civil war, of all others the most sanguinary and ferocious. The line which separates the North from the South will be known in all history as the line of blood. It will be marked on either side by frowning fortresses, by opposing batteries, by gleaming sabres, by bristling bayonets, by the tramp of contending armies, by towns and cities sacked and pillaged, by dwellings given to the flames, and fields laid waste and desolate. No mortal hand can lift the veil which conceals the unspeakable disasters of such a conflict. No prophetic vision can penetrate the dark abyss of such a catastrophe. It will be a second fall of mankind, and while we shall be performing here the bloody drama of a nation's suicide, from the thrones of Europe will arise the exulting shouts of despots, and upon their gloomy banners shall be inscribed, as they believe never to be effaced, their motto:—

Man is incapable of self-government.

Nor let it be supposed by the North that superior numbers will give them the victory over the South, or exempt them from the calamities of such a conflict. The financial and industrial ruin of the North would be great and overwhelming. The annual products of the South have now reached at least thirteen hundred millions of dollars, and a much larger portion of this is surplus for export than in the North. Thus the total exports abroad of the whole country of our own products and manufactures (excluding specie) for the year ending 30th of June, 1855, were \$192,751,000, of which there were from the North \$67,626,000, and from the South \$125,124,000, cotton alone being \$88,143,000, thus showing the export of the South nearly double that of the North. But in the table of these Northern exports is \$5,857,000 of cotton piece goods. Now these were made out of 400,000 bales of Southern cotton, costing (at \$50 a bale) \$2,000,000, furnished by the South to the North, to be deducted from the Northern and added to the Southern export, making a difference in this article alone in favor of the South of \$4,000,000.

In the same manner, in the table of Northern exports, are found spirits of molasses \$1,448,000, manufactured tobacco \$1,486,000, spirits of turpentine \$1,137,000, and a vast number of other articles of which the raw materials are chiefly from the South, amounting (including cotton) to at least \$10,000,000, to be deducted from the Northern and added to the Southern export, making the former \$57,626,000, and the latter \$135,124,000, or vastly more than double. Thus it is that the South furnished vastly more than double those exports which constitute the basis of our exchange and commerce,

which build up our commercial marine (the cradle of our navy) and employ our shipping, thus greatly more than doubling our tonnage, and enabling us ultimately to command the commerce of the world.

So also as to the articles not exported abroad. Those of the South being almost exclusively raw products, and those of the North, to a great extent manufactures, the raw materials furnished by the South to the North, must be deducted from the Northern product and added to that of the South.

The population of the free States at the last census was 13,434,922, and that of the South, 9,664,656. The annual products of the South now reach at least \$1,300,000,000, which furnish the means of employment to more than three millions of the people of the North. This arises in various ways. In supplying so vast a portion of the freight and passengers for transportation abroad and coastwise, on the ocean, lakes, bays and rivers, railroads and canals, and which bring back the return cargoes, the timber must be cut, the iron and other materials furnished, the vehicles of commerce built, the railroads and engines constructed, the crews and hands employed, the shipments and re-shipments made, the stores occupied, the merchandise sold, furnishing profit, employment, and wages to thousands at the North. Then, too, the farmers, workmen, and other parties of the North and Northwest, in supplying manufactures and provision to the South, increasing the number to millions. Indeed, it would be impossible to enumerate all the multiplied ramifications of the business of the North connected with the South, that give employment to Northern capital and Northern labor.

Now, by a dissolution of the Union and civil war, there would be total non-intercourse between the North and the South, an absolute prohibition of all imports or exports, which would necessarily throw the trade of the South into other channels. This we have seen would throw out of employment more than three millions of the people of the North, including the families connected with them, most of whom would be reduced to absolute indigence. It would not be the case with them of low profits, low compensation or salaries, or low wages, but of none, because the business that gave them employment would have ceased. As these millions, thus reduced to want, would be unable, as heretofore, to make their former purchases, many thousands more in the North would, to a vast extent, lose their business and employment, and thus extend the disaster, so as to affect most injuriously the whole people of the North.

The Northern railroads, vessels, and steamers would lose their freight and passengers passing to and from the South,

the Northern stores, connected with this trade, would be closed, the Northern vessels lay idle at the wharves, the Northern manufactures no longer reach the markets of the South, nor the cotton be furnished in return; the ship yards and engine works, thus employed, would be discontinued; the Northern farms would cease to supply breadstuffs and provisions to the South—these they would raise themselves at home in lieu of that portion of their cotton heretofore supplied to the Northern market. Their own exports would be shipped abroad in their own or foreign vessels, from their own ports, and to the same points, in the same manner, would be brought back the return cargoes. Indeed, such a cessation of business, of intercourse, of wages and employment, produced by civil war between the North and the South, would cause here a perfect paralysis.

Commerce would perish; credit would decay; all property, real and personal, would rapidly depreciate in value; good debts, to banks and others, would become worthless; wages or salaries would cease or decline; stock would sink to a nominal value; confidence would vanish; all available means would take the form of specie, which would be hoarded, and seek its usual hiding places, as in all times of convulsion. To crown the disaster, more than three millions of people at the North, receiving no wages or employment, must live. They must have houses, food, and raiment. But how to be obtained? Would it be by the new agrarian doctrine of submitting rights of property to the decision of the ballot box? Would it be by division or confiscation? Would the anti-rent doctrine become universal? Or is this too tedious a process? Would riots prevail? Would plunder and pillage close the disaster? But crimes, tumults, taxes, misery, deaths, Government, State, city, and county debts, at enormous rates of interest, and emigration of persons and capital to other countries, would all increase, while liberty itself would expire in the conflict, and the bayonets, as in Europe, take the place of the ballot box. The jails and poor houses would be multiplied; sieges and battles prevail, and thousands perish in fraternal strife. The taxes to support those who could not support themselves, and to maintain large and costly armies in the field, would be incalculable.

Look at Europe. Her armies now numbering nearly four millions of men, (greater than our whole voting population,) trample down the rights and interests of the people, and consume their substance, while European government debts have nearly reached ten thousand millions of dollars. But at least, they have suppressed the guillotine, and possess what they call law and order. But would we have even these, until military usurpation had closed the drama of blood and violence, and

written the last sad epitaph of human liberty and self-government. The picture is darkly shadowed, but it is by the pencil of truth, and the gloomy reality would be darker still. My soul shrinks from the contemplation of scenes like these, and my pen would refuse to perform its office in describing them, if a sense of duty did not compel me to give these warnings, ere it is too late, and exert all my feeble efforts to prevent the ruin of my country. Now, these efforts may possibly accomplish something; after the election, my humble voice would be unheard or unheeded in the tempest of passion that would sweep the country.

Let those of the North who tell you there is no danger, shrink from the fearful responsibility they have assumed, ere the evil day shall come upon us. They tell us there is no danger, that they have heard this cry before—of danger to the Union—but there is no peril. None in 1820, none in 1833, none in 1850, and the warnings of Washington were a delusion. Why, then, did they call Henry Clay the pacificator, and announce that thrice he had saved his country? How saved the Union, if it never was in danger? But it was imperilled, and it was saved by measures adopted by the votes of the North and the South. But now the Union between the North and the South, so far as the votes for the sectional candidates of the so-called “republican” party is concerned, is already dissolved; for no man anticipates a solitary electoral vote for those candidates in any State of the South; but this controversy is to be settled exclusively in favor of the North, and by the exclusive vote of the North; and the rights, wishes, and interests of the South are to be wholly disregarded.

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#### GOV. FLOYD ON THE RIGHTS AND RESOURCES OF THE SOUTH.

There is another phase of this sectional arraignment. It is said that the South, with all its high claims and terrifying exactions, is poor and imbecile. Declamation is exhausted to maintain this, and figures, too, are relied upon to establish the fact. I feel confident that before this assemblage, a few well established and familiar facts are enough to answer the alleged insignificance of Southern production. What fund supplies the United States with European exchange? It is almost exclusively the product of the Southern States—cotton, rice, tobacco, and turpentine. These exchanges constitute the foundation stone upon which rests the whole structure of the banks—and upon the banks again, cluster and rest all the mercantile and mechanical prosperity of this city—indeed of the whole North. There is not a man in the community whose



interests are not indissolubly connected with these great interests. The country cannot be insignificant or worthless whose products mainly sustain this great interest. Take away from New York the exchange which Southern States give to her, and every interest, and every pursuit here would be thrown into chaos. It is not, however, the general aggregate of production which shows the prosperity or wealth either of an individual or a community; the surplus over consumption shows this. This being, then, a palpable fact, it must follow that the South, with about one-third the population of the whole Union, and producing, according to the recent statistical statements, almost one-half of all agricultural productions, cannot be idle or unprosperous. Nay, she must be exactly the reverse.

But I will not rely upon generalities. Let us examine a little in detail those vaunted statistics, which seek to elevate a party to power by disparaging one-half of the Confederacy.

The aggregate productions of the United States, are set down in round numbers, at four thousand five hundred millions. Of the agricultural products, the South is admitted to produce forty-seven per cent. Of the commerce and manufactures, she is said to have twenty per cent. Let us see what conclusions are legitimately deducible from these data? Forty-seven per cent. of one thousand four hundred millions annual agricultural produce, would be about seven hundred and five millions. And twenty per cent. credited to the South in commerce and manufactures, would be about six hundred millions. The annual productions of the Southern States, show, according to these figures, I may set down, at a little over one thousand three hundred millions of dollars. Now it is claimed that the North has a population of seventeen millions, and the South has about eight millions, it is said; so that if we estimate the Southern population, as compared with the Northern, at thirty per cent., it will not be far out of the way. Then observe, thirty per cent. of four thousand five hundred millions of dollars, give us thirteen hundred and fifty millions, making about a fair proportion to the production of the non-slaveholding States, as shown by these statistics.

I do not endorse these statistics. It can be easily shown that they are incorrect; the error is not in favor of the South. But assuming them to be correct, they demonstrate how admirably, under our Federal system, labor in the United States is distributed and rewarded. These statistics show that the gross earnings of the Southern States correspond very well with the non-slaveholding States. Neither can be said to enjoy any particular advantage over the other.

If the North think it a great advantage to have its employments diversified—that its products are more various—that it

controls the commerce and manufactures of the Union—for one I rejoice at the consummation of her wishes. And more, I rejoice that the great staples of the South are the chief means by which your commerce is fostered, and your mechanics and artisans kept constantly at work. It is a powerful bond of Union.

These statistics, upon which I have been commenting, I rather think establish facts which were scarcely perceived or understood by their authors. They establish an equality between the two sections of the country, which they were intended to destroy. It is a little curious to note the blunder which led to the false conclusion. It is obvious that those who view the parallel between North and South with these statistics, disparaging the South and eulogizing the North, do not seem to know that eight millions of people are *not* fifty per cent. of the population of the United States, but only about thirty. And, therefore, that the products of the South were fully up to the requirements of that industry and skill which so signalizes the North, when they produced one-third of the general aggregate production of the Union. A very little knowledge of statistics, however, will correct such blunders, and there can scarcely be any danger to any cause where attacks rest upon such a flimsy basis. I entertain the liveliest hopes that any one, that every one, who has been *inveigled* into the ranks of our enemies from statistics like these, will, when they correct their arithmetic, come into the great party of conservatism, of progress and peace.

Gentlemen, it is obvious that time would fail me to go into a detailed answer to the "rabble of objections," which the fanaticism of a black bannered host raises against the conservatism of the country. Allow me to advert to a few prominent facts and I will hasten on to a conclusion.

Until this fanatical party grew into formidable dimensions, there was peace and fraternity between the North and South. Precisely in proportion to its growth and strength has been the agitation and alienation between the two sections. If this party succeeds in the approaching election, this agitation and alienation must of necessity increase. It is mere folly to disguise the manifest fact that the tendency of this party is to the abolition of slavery. It is no answer to say that this one or that one disclaims the object. I tell you, and you know, that the brave men, the sincere men, the men of will and brains, who give to this party its vitality and force, are for it—are determined on it—and the election of their candidate, instead of quieting our troubles, will be the signal for agitation. A few of their credulous leaders, who believe that the storm will abate with party triumph, might indeed interpose their feeble

voices against the hurricane of fanaticism which success would raise up, but they would be swallowed up in the surging of the billows, like a bubble on the crest of the breakers—there would come from their kennels and hidden recesses a pack never before seen or heard of—they would demand power and would have it; and those who would hesitate at extreme measures and violent legislation, would be superseded by those who had no scruples. You have had already some foreshadowing of the course which this party will pursue. For month after month they held Congress in a state of disorganization—they have stimulated sectional strife to an unheard of pitch—and refused to accept peace for Kansas.

If they have in contemplation a practical policy, why not avow it distinctly? Is it the amelioration of the condition of the African race? Why not say what they propose, what they desire? Let me, as a Southern man, offer a suggestion: these friends of the negro race, if sincere in their professions, have a duty to perform to the race. When they shall take practical steps to elevate the race, we will believe in their honesty and sincerity. We must be excused from believing, the world must be excused from believing, in their sincerity, until their avowed policy proposes some amelioration of the black man's condition. Let them begin with the free black man. Why did this "free soil, free speech, free men," party exclude the colored man from free Kansas? After all, do these philanthropists not consider the African to be a "MAN?" If otherwise, why exclude him from the soil "consecrated to freedom," as they have done by the Topeka proceedings? This looks like a deception and a cheat. But if they be honest, let the experiment be made of elevating the black man to an equality with the white. Why do they not propose to take off the galling disabilities under which public opinion has placed the race? Can they not declare that the negro man shall be admitted to the professions—to the legislature—to the parlors—to the hearthstone? If this is done mankind will believe in their sincerity. Until then there must be doubt. But if public opinion in the "free States" is not yet prepared for this, why not give these people a trial through the means of the African Colonization Society? Virginia gives thirty thousand dollars a year to this enterprise. What do the "friends of freedom" give? A small per centage of the money expended in Sharpe's rifles for bleeding Kansas, would presently demonstrate the capability of the negro man for self-government in Africa—if he is capable. But probably this course would not affect materially the Presidential election, and that no doubt is the chief object with our philanthropic friends.

## WHAT THE NORTH AND THE SOUTH HAVE DONE FOR THE NEGRO.

The Charleston Courier says in relation to the annexed letter: "We do not design to argue the questions here suggested, at length, but simply to introduce the testimony of another observer to the consistent attitude of the South. We design to show by disinterested testimony that even assuming the ultimate ends and purposes of the moderate abolition party, or of emancipationism to be proper and laudable, the South has done more than the North. This view is well stated in a late letter from Gen. JOHN TYLER, of Philadelphia, which we accordingly subjoin, remarking only that we give the letter merely for what it is worth, as the opinion of one not practically and personally related to the question, as a slave holder by citizenship, interest, or residence, and that we do not endorse all the inferences and applications that may be made of the argument as stated."

SIR: As regards the second position assumed by us in our conversation, "*That every practical act of philanthropy in relation to negro slavery, from and after the adoption of the Constitution, has emanated from and been effected by the slaveholding States and their citizens,*" you will remember I said the first great practical act on the subject proceeded from Virginia, in the shape of the Ordinance of 1787, when she surrendered to the General Government the Territory now composing the States of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, and Wisconsin, with the proviso that negro slavery should be forever excluded from it, although by the local law the whole was negro slave Territory. This, at least, is a full and fair set off to the abolition of negro slavery in the Northern States, prior to that time. For negro slavery actually existed in Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois, under their Territorial Governments to a limited extent, and it was only to a limited extent that the same institution existed in the Northern States when they abolished it. In both there were but few negroes in comparison with the great mass of the population, and the slave-owner was rather an exception to the general rule of the society than otherwise. In neither had the system become interwoven with the general system of the community, though acknowledged by the local law of both. Besides the slave-owners found them valueless at home and sold them off, for the most part, before the Acts of Emancipation went into effect. But be this as it may, by this one act of Virginia, a larger realm of negro slave territory was made non-slaveholding territory, than is embraced in the whole of New England, New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania combined. What have the defamers of the South and the Democracy to say to these facts?

The second great practical act of philanthropy on the subject, originating with the South, arose immediately after the adoption by the Federal Congress of the Ordinance of 1787, and is to be found in the clause of the Constitution abolishing the slave trade. During the session of the Convention to frame



the Constitution, the representatives of the Southern States, with the exception of South Carolina, brought forward a proposition for the immediate suppression of the slave trade. This proposition was at once warmly opposed by the representatives of most of the Northern States, on the ground that the Northern States were too deeply interested in that trade to consent to its immediate suppression. New England and Old England had not only supplied the whole Continent of America, for a hundred years, with negro slavery, and to such extent, that it is undeniably true, that every negro slave at this day living in the Southern States, is held as such under bills of sale originally from one or the other of them; but New England was at this very time largely engaged in the infamous traffic, and had millions of dollars invested in it. Neither New Hampshire, nor Massachusetts, nor Rhode Island, nor Connecticut, then saw any philanthropy in the proposition of the South to abolish this inhuman traffic. They were too deeply concerned in its profits, and had too much capital, and too many ships, and too many citizens involved in it, to surrender it on any principle of national policy, humanity or religion. Their representatives in the Convention, I will do them the justice to say, ably and zealously represented the interests, feelings, and wishes of their constituents, in opposition to the measure of the Southern representatives for the immediate suppression of the slave trade.

The contest on the subject between the North and the South, became at length so heated, that for fear of breaking up the Convention without the accomplishment of union, the South yielded to a compromise in favor of the North. They agreed that the North might enjoy the profits of trade for twenty years longer, but then it should cease. Hence the clause of the Constitution upon which the act of Congress on the subject is framed, reads, "1808," instead of 1788, as the South would have had it. What have the defamers of the South and of Democracy to say to these facts?

The third great practical act of philanthropy proposed on the subject by the Southern States, or their citizens, may be found in the "Colonization Society" and the purchase of "Liberia," on the coast of Africa, as a home for emancipated negro slaves. The first national president of this Society was Chief Justice John Marshall, of Virginia, and its second national president was Henry Clay, of Kentucky. The first State president of this Society in Virginia, was ex-President James Madison, and its second State president in Virginia, was ex-President John Tyler. Space will not permit me to indulge in details, but it will be scarcely denied that this Association in its primary inception, in its successful beneficence, in its happy provinces, and the actual results it has already accomplished

in behalf of the negro race, both in America and in Africa, deservedly ranks with all right thinking and right intentioned men, among the noblest institutions of humanity of which the age can boast. It has already led to the emancipation of thousands who would otherwise have been forever slaves, and supplied them with all the appliances and comforts of an independent home and free Republican government in that quarter of the world from which they originally came, and to which God and nature assigned them—where “none may make them afraid,” and from whence they may spread the arts of peace and civilization among their brethren over the continent of Africa. What have the defamers of the South, and of the Democracy to say to these facts? They abuse the Colonization Society because they prefer the emancipated negro here to compete with white labor in industrial pursuits, and with white electors at our election polls. For one, I had rather have them further off, if emancipated.

The fourth great practical philanthropy manifested by the South and her citizens, in connexion with negro slavery, *may be found in the strongest and purest expression of emancipation sentiment probably ever made by man*, to which I shall advert, and for which I am indebted to the Rev. Dr. Stiles, of the Presbyterian Church North, much of whose language even I shall use. How shall we try the purity and power of a sentiment in the human heart? Surely not by words—not by any process of stubborn and imperious agitation—not by any transient aid and comfort furnished to flying slaves. All these, and many similar developments, may cost but little. The power of a principle exhibits itself by the labors it can put forth, the oppositions it can resist, the self-denials it can bear, and the sacrifice it can make. Where shall we find the most commanding expression of that calm, enlightened, benign, high-souled sentiment of emancipation in connection with the negro slave, which is uttered by the sacrifice? Will you point to England and her £20,000,000 for the liberation of the blacks in the West Indies? These things will work an abatement of our appreciation of this act of England. First: This sum was furnished by the richest treasury in the world. Second: Only the annual interest of this sum has been paid; the principal never will be until her national debt is paid, which can never be. Third: This sum was paid by her, not to benevolent principle, but to self-interest. She thought that free labor in the West Indies would be far superior to slave labor there, and therefore, by the Act of Emancipation, she would get her sugars at a penny a pound less than she was then paying, which would return to her 100,000,000 of pounds in the place of the 20,000,000 pounds thus expended. Again, she desired

to open up the abolition question, to produce strife and dissensions in this Union, that constituted her great rival in commerce and manufactures. England never yet performed a disinterested national act of philanthropy. But the citizens of the Southern States, since the adoption of the Constitution, have emancipated 250,000 negro slaves. Assuming the average value of these slaves to have been five hundred dollars, which is under rather than over the mark, the citizens of the Southern States have contributed \$125,000,000 towards emancipation. And when we consider that in almost every case of individual emancipation at the South, a sum equal to the full value of the slave has been invariably given to him to enable him to purchase a home for himself, and in addition to this, the immense sums contributed to the Colonization Society by others, we do not exaggerate the sum voluntarily bestowed in this way by the South, when we set it down at \$250,000,000. This immense sum has been actually paid out, not interest, only, but principal also—not by a rich public treasury, but by private families, who lived by the slaves they surrendered—not for the public eye, but in the retirement of private life—not under circumstances which provided the slightest hope of pecuniary emolument, but from no other possible motive than quiet and conscientious sentiment. What can the defamers of the South and of Democracy say to these facts?

The fifth great philanthropic manifestation made by the Southern States and their citizens in this connection may be found in the fact, *that they have effectuated a larger conversion of the heathen than the whole world beside, through the conversion of their negroes from Barbaric Polytheism to Christianity and God.* What is the whole number of Heathens which the American Church presents at this day as converts to Christianity? The American Board of Missions have 26,000: the Baptist 15,000; the Methodist 13,000; the Presbyterians 250; and the Episcopalians only 71—in all 54,321. For this statement I am indebted to the Rev. Dr. Stiles, of the Presbyterian Church North. Now, one branch alone of the Methodist Church South numbers 134,722 negro-slave members, more than three times the number of heathen converts than the combined American Church can produce. The number of members in the whole heathen church of the world, according to the ablest and best authorities, reaches only 200,000 members. Look again at the South. To say nothing whatever of the colored members of the churches in Maryland, (and they are numerous,) nor those of the Presbyterian Church South; nor those of the Episcopal Church South; nor those of the Lutheran Church South, and several other denominations, all of which

have many colored members, there are enrolled upon the lists of two church denominations alone at the South, negro members in the Methodist Church 134,000, and in the Baptist Church 130,000, making in these two branches only, 264,000 heathen converts. Thus it appears that the South and her citizens have redeemed scores of thousands more of the family of man from savageism and heathenism than all the churches of the "*Free Soil*" of the world combined have yet gathered within their fold. It seems, indeed, that the Almighty in his wisdom has selected Southern institutions, and Southern philanthropy, through the grace of the Saviour, as his methods of removing the curse from Ham and redeeming Africa. What, I again ask, have the defamers of the South and of Democracy to say to these facts? They can only answer through the ravings of fanaticism?

I might enlarge upon the great additional philanthropic fact connected with the subject of the *vast social and mental improvement of the negro slave of the Southern States*, since his first introduction there by Old England and New England, but I fear to impose too much upon you. When landed in this country, the African captive belonged to the most degraded heathen and barbarian tribes upon the face of the globe. His descendants are now far removed from the universal debasement of his progenitors. Changes for the better have marked the history of negro slavery from its commencement to the present hour. Not only has the slave been redeemed from barbarism to civilization, and from heathenism to christianity, but from being in his social condition a blood-thirsty and predatory animal, living by the butcheries he was eternally committing upon his fellows, he has been rendered an orderly member of society, humane to his fellows and of vast benefit to the family of man. The laws of the Southern States in reference to the negro slave, are more benign than any code of laws in reference to a subject class, ever framed among men; and the customs of the dominant class exact from him less labor, and bestow upon him more care than the customs of any dominant class in Europe exact from and bestow upon its so-called "*free white laborers*." Everywhere else in the world the laboring classes have to provide themselves with houses, lands, clothing, food, fuel, and medical attendance, and have also to take care of their aged, infirm, and adolescent. If one is too old for work, or too infirm for work, or too young for work in other societies, and has no family or friend who can and will provide for him out of his daily acquired pittance, he necessarily has to appeal to charity and the alms house for the means to sustain life. The daily receipts of the day laborer, even in the best regulat-



ed communities elsewhere, but scantily supply the means of paying rent, and providing requisite food, raiment, fuel, and medical attendance for himself and family. Sickness or accident often subject him to the mercy of his landlord, and render him destitute of the necessaries of life. In the Southern States the negro slave is always bountifully supplied with all the necessaries of life, never suffers from the want of medical attendance, has his aged, and infirm and adolescent amply provided for, and reared in comfort, cultivates the land whose products return to himself rent free; and never, from the hour of his birth to the day of his death, passes a day without being secure in his tenement and home. Even his family, though liable to be sold, are nevertheless more united in time and space, than the families of the slaveholders themselves, and incomparably more so than the families of the North, that rarely "abide in one story," which fact is too easy of demonstration to admit of argument.

In conclusion, the census of 1850 exhibits the statistics, showing less blindness, deafness, lunacy, and suffering among the negro slaves of the South, than among any other four million of laborers in the universe, with regard to whom statistics have been made; and to this fact our enemies can answer nothing.

#### THE SUGAR CROP OF LOUISIANA.

We extract the following from the last annual statement of the New Orleans Prices Current:

**SUGAR.**—The season opened upon unfavorable prospects for the sugar crop, and it was generally estimated, at quite an early date, that the deficiency, as compared with the previous year (when the crop was 346,635 hogsheads) would be at least 100,000 hogsheads. This estimate proved to be sufficiently accurate for all practical purposes, as the actual crop, according to the annual statement of Mr. P. A. Champomier, was found to be 231,427 hogsheads, viz: 192,391 hogsheads brown sugar, made by the old process, 23,265 hogsheads refined and clarified, and 5,771 hogshead cistern bottoms, the last being an estimate of 3 per cent. on the product of brown sugar. The hogsheads are estimated to average 1,100 pounds; giving a total for the crop of 254,569,000 pounds. This was the product of 1,299 sugar-houses, against 1,324 the year before, and of these 938 use steam and 361 use horses as their motive power. This further large deficiency in the crop has been productive of a higher range of prices than we remember to have been attained since the remarkably short crop of 1835, and thus the

aggregate gross returns have been within about two millions of dollars of the value of the previous crop.

The first hogshead of the *new crop* was received here on the 10th of October, being only six days later than the first receipt of the previous year, but it was not taken as any indication of the general forwardness of the crop, which was understood to be unusually backward, rendering the grinding season late and precarious. And this proved to be the fact, for it was not until the close of October that there were any supplies and sales sufficient to constitute an opening of the market. The early receipts, too, were of an unusually low range of quality, the cane not being well matured, and the unseasonably warm weather during a considerable portion of the grinding season, and the subsequent injury by frost, contributed to give to the entire crop an unusually low average. Under these circumstances the first receipts of the new crop were disposed of with difficulty, as they were not generally sufficiently well drained for shipment, or for grocers' purposes, and at the beginning of November the range of prices was as follows:

Inferior .....	4 a4 $\frac{1}{2}$
Common .....	5 a5 $\frac{1}{2}$
Fair to fully Fair .....	5 $\frac{1}{2}$ a6 $\frac{1}{2}$
Prime .....	6 $\frac{1}{2}$ a6 $\frac{3}{4}$
Choice .....	7 a7 $\frac{1}{2}$
Clarified .....	7 a8 $\frac{1}{2}$

The course of the market throughout the season is indicated by the following table, which exhibits the highest and lowest points in each month for *fair to fully fair* sugar on the levee, and also the *average price* in each month, for the same qualities. It will be seen that the fluctuations have been slight, the general course of the market having been upward, and the lowest and highest points being, the former in November and the latter in July.

1855-'56.	Highest.	Lowest.	Average.
September....cents per lb.....	7 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 8	6 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 6 $\frac{3}{4}$	7 $\frac{1}{2}$
October.....	6 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 7	6 a 6 $\frac{1}{2}$	6 $\frac{3}{4}$
November.....	6 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 6 $\frac{3}{4}$	5 $\frac{3}{4}$ a 6	5 $\frac{7}{8}$
December.....	6 $\frac{3}{4}$ a 7 $\frac{1}{2}$	6 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 6 $\frac{3}{4}$	6 $\frac{1}{2}$
January.....	7 a 7 $\frac{1}{2}$	6 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 7 $\frac{1}{2}$	7
February.....	7 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 7 $\frac{3}{4}$	7 a 7 $\frac{1}{2}$	7
March.....	7 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 7 $\frac{3}{4}$	6 $\frac{3}{4}$ a 7 $\frac{3}{4}$	7 $\frac{1}{2}$
April.....	7 a 7 $\frac{3}{4}$	6 $\frac{3}{4}$ a 7 $\frac{3}{4}$	7 $\frac{1}{2}$
May.....	7 $\frac{3}{4}$ a 8	6 $\frac{3}{4}$ a 7 $\frac{3}{4}$	7 $\frac{3}{4}$
June.....	8 a 8 $\frac{1}{2}$	7 $\frac{3}{4}$ a 8 $\frac{1}{2}$	8
July.....	8 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 8 $\frac{1}{2}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 8 $\frac{1}{2}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$
August.....	8 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 9 $\frac{1}{4}$	8 $\frac{3}{4}$ a 8 $\frac{1}{2}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$

The first transactions on plantation were noticed in the early part of February, and from time to time considerable sales were reported, at  $6\frac{1}{2}$ ,  $6\frac{3}{4}$ , 7,  $7\frac{1}{4}$ ,  $7\frac{3}{8}$ ,  $7\frac{1}{2}$ ,  $7\frac{5}{8}$ ,  $7\frac{3}{4}$ ,  $7\frac{7}{8}$ , 8,  $8\frac{1}{4}$ ,  $8\frac{1}{2}$ ,  $8\frac{3}{4}$ , 9, and  $9\frac{1}{4}$  cents per pound. The receipts at the levee since 1st September, have been 155,319 hogsheads, against 189,742 hogsheads last year, or a decrease of 34,423 hogsheads. This shows that an unusually large proportion of the crop has come to the city, as the deficiency in the crop is 115,208 hogsheads.

The estimated stock on hand at the close of last season was 10,000 hogsheads, and this amount added to the crop—231,427 hogsheads—would make a supply of 241,427 hogsheads. The distribution of this supply, as nearly as can be ascertained, has been as follows:

Shipments to places out of the State, as shown by our tables, and including the exports from Attakapas, 52,400 hogsheads; consumption of the city and neighborhood 30,000 hogsheads; taken for refining, in the city and other parts of the State, including cistern bottoms, 8,000 hogsheads; estimated quantity taken to fill up hogsheads for shipment 15,000 hogsheads; stock now on hand in the State, estimated at 5,000 hogsheads; leaving as the quantity taken for the West 131,027 hogsheads, against 142,963 hogsheads last year, or a decrease of 11,936 hogsheads. The quantity shipped to Atlantic ports is only 39,133 hogsheads, against 121,963 hogsheads last year; showing a decrease of 82,830 hogsheads.

According to a statement annually made up by the New York Shipping and Commercial List the total import of foreign sugar into the United States for the year ended December 31, 1855, was 205,064 tons (equal to 382,786 hogsheads of 1,200 pounds each) against 165,925 tons, or 309,726 hogsheads in 1854; and the quantity of this description taken for consumption in 1855, was 194,052 tons, against 150,854 tons in 1854, or an increase of about  $28\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. The total consumption of both foreign and domestic cane sugar in 1855, was 379,197 tons, against 385,298 tons in 1854, or a decrease in the total consumption of nearly  $1\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. Besides the above it is estimated that there entered into the consumption about 11,160 tons of sugar made from foreign and domestic molasses, and about 14,500 of maple sugar, which, with the consumption of California and Oregon, estimated at about 5,500 tons, would give a grand total for the consumption of the United States in the year 1855, of 410,357 tons, against 415,000 tons in 1854. This amount is equal to 766,000 hogsheads of 1,200 pounds each.

We have compiled from our records the annexed statement of the sugar product of Louisiana for the past twenty-two years, showing the amount of each year's crop in hogsheads and

pounds, with the gross average value, per hogshead and total, the proportions taken by Atlantic ports and Western States, and the date of the first receipt of each crop. By this statement it will be seen that the total product of Louisiana from 1834 to 1855, inclusive, a period of twenty-two years, was 3,898,740 hogsheads, valued at \$198,993,868, and that of this quantity the Atlantic ports took 1,316,033 hogsheads, and the Western States 1,934,527 hogsheads. The crops from 1828 (which is as far back as our estimates extend) to 1833, summed up 281,000 hogsheads; which would make the total product in a period of twenty-six years 4,179,740 hogsheads, or 4,396,331,000 pounds. In an article on sugar, which we published in our columns in June last, it is stated that the estimated product of Louisiana in 1815, was 10,000,000 pounds, or about 10,000 hogsheads. In 1853, it will be seen by the statement below, the crop reached 449,324 hogsheads, estimated to weigh 495,156,000 pounds. We would here remark that up to 1848, the product in hogsheads is estimated, and 1,000 pounds taken as the average weight per hogsheads, but for the crops since that date we have taken the figures of Mr. P. A. Champomier, as we find them in his annual statements.

Year.	TOTAL CROP.		Average price per hhd.	Total Value.
	Hhds.	Pounds.		
1834.....	100,000	100,000,000	\$60 00	\$6,000,000
1835.....	30,000	30,000,000	90 00	2,700,000
1836.....	70,000	70,000,000	60 00	4,200,000
1837.....	65,000	65,000,000	62 50	5,062,500
1838.....	70,000	70,000,000	62 50	4,375,000
1839.....	115,000	115,000,000	50 00	5,750,000
1840.....	87,000	87,000,000	55 00	4,785,000
1841.....	90,000	90,000,000	40 00	3,600,000
1842.....	140,000	140,000,000	42 50	4,750,000
1843.....	100,000	100,000,000	60 00	6,000,000
1844.....	200,000	200,000,000	45 00	9,000,000
1845.....	186,650	186,650,000	55 00	10,265,750
1846.....	140,000	140,000,000	70 00	9,800,000
1847.....	240,000	240,000,000	40 00	9,600,000
1848.....	220,000	220,000,000	40 00	8,800,000
1849.....	247,923	269,769,000	50 00	12,396,150
1850.....	211,303	231,194,000	60 00	12,678,180
1851.....	236,547	257,188,000	50 00	11,827,350
1852.....	321,931	368,129,000	48 00	15,452,688
1853.....	449,324	495,156,000	35 00	15,726,340
1854.....	346,635	385,726,000	52 00	18,025,020
1855.....	231,427	254,569,000	70 00	16,199,890
Total.....	3,898,740	4,115,331,000		195,993,868



Year.	Exported to Atlantic Ports. Hogsheads.	Exported to Western States, Hogsheads.	First receipt of new crop.
1834.....	45,500	44,500	October 15.
1835.....	1,500	23,500	November 5.
1836.....	26,300	35,000	November 1.
1837.....	24,500	32,500	November 1.
1838.....	26,500	32,500	October 17.
1839.....	42,600	58,000	October 13.
1840.....	38,500	46,500	October 14.
1841.....	28,000	50,000	October 13.
1842.....	63,000	60,000	October 12.
1843.....	34,000	52,000	October 22.
1844.....	101,000	70,000	October 3.
1845.....	79,000	75,000	October 4.
1846.....	45,500	70,000	October 7.
1847.....	84,000	115,000	October 2.
1848.....	90,000	108,000	October 5.
1849.....	90,000	125,000	October 11.
1850.....	45,000	123,000	October 17.
1851.....	42,000	149,000	October 19.
1852.....	82,000	206,000	October 9.
1853.....	166,000	185,000	October 6.
1854.....	122,000	143,000	October 4.
1855.....	39,133	131,027	October 10.
	1,316,033	1,354,527	

The coming crop will doubtless be the shortest, in proportion to the extent of ground cultivated, that has occurred since 1835, when the yield was estimated at 30,000 hogsheads. There has been a gradual changing, for some years past, from the Sugar culture to that of Cotton, for we find by Mr. Champomier's statements that while in 1852 there were 1481 Sugar Houses, in 1855 the number has been reduced to 1299; showing a decrease in three years of 182. We also know that there has been a further material decrease this year, but the great falling off in the crop is referable to the damages from the remarkable continuance of cold and wet weather during the past winter, by which the *rattoons* or *stubbles* were almost entirely destroyed, as well as much of the plant cane, before or after planting. Under these circumstances some planters ploughed up their fields and planted Corn or Cotton, or both, and will have no cane. Others will perhaps make enough to replant for another crop, while some, having light soil or well drained lands, and having been favored by seasonable showers, may approach a fair average. These will have an excess of cane beyond their requirements for replanting, but whether they will sell from their excess, to those wanting plants, instead of making Sugar, and to what extent, we have no means of estimating. At all events the crop must be a short one—doubtless the shortest since 1843—as the extreme estimate named is 125,000 hogsheads, while some mark as low as 80,000 hogsheads, an amount altogether insufficient for the requirements of the West alone,

and calling for an unusually large import of foreign Sugars. In accounting for the decline in the production for years past it is probable that it may be in some degree (possibly a very important one) attributable to the deterioration of the plant from the partial exhaustion of the peculiar qualities of the soil necessary for its sustenance. Should this be the case it would be well for planters to supply the deficiency by the application of the proper manures.

**MOLASSES**—According to the Annual Statement of Mr. P. A. Champomier the product of last year's crop of cane, estimating sixty gallons to each 1000 lbs. of Sugar, was 15,274,140 gallons against 23,113,620 gallons last year, or a decrease of 7,839,480 gallons, and 15,725,860 gallons less than the estimated product of 1853.

This large falling off in the supply, together with the high cost of Sugar, has been productive of a higher range of prices than we ever remember to have been attained in this market, and the gross return has actually exceeded that of the larger crop of last year, the average of the season being 30 cents per gallon against 18½ last year.

The arrivals at the levee during the past season have been 288,811 barrels, against 310,718 barrels last year; showing a decrease of 21,907 barrels, and the course of the market through the season is indicated by the following table, which shows the highest and lowest points in each month for lots on the levee, in barrels:

1855-'56.	Highest.	Lowest.
September.....cents per gall..	28 a 32	22 a 30
October.....	17 a 32	12 a 26
November.....	29 a 30	24 a 29
December.....	37 a 40	24 a 31
January.....	33½ a 36½	30 a 35
February.....	30 a 35½	30 a 34½
March.....	32 a 36½	29 a 34½
April.....	31 a 38½	30 a 35
May.....	35 a 42½	30 a 37½
June.....	40 a 50	36 a 45
July.....	30 a 47	30 a 45
August.....	30 a 45	30 a 45

The first sales reported on plantation were about the middle of November, and the principal sales were in December, and January. The range of prices for crops in the cisterns has been as follows: In November 22 a 24; December 25, 28, 30, and 32; January 32, 32½, 32½, and 33; February 32, a 33½; March 31 a 32; April 33; May 35, and June 40 a 44, leaving few desirable crops remaining unsold. The extreme

range last year was 12½ cents in December and 25 cents in May.

The quantity shipped to Atlantic ports, according to our tables (which include the exports direct from Attakapas), is equal to about 4,335,000 gallons, against 8,487,880 gallons last year. This amount being deducted from the whole crop of 15,725,860 gallons, as estimated by Mr. Champomier, there would be left, for the consumption of the West and South, 11,390,860 gallons, against 18,625,120 gallons last year.

Among the exports last year several thousand barrels were taken for France and the North, for distilling purposes, but the high range of prices this season has precluded such purchases.

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RULES IN THE MANAGEMENT OF A SOUTHERN ESTATE.\*

OVERSEERS.—1. On the first of each year, or whenever a new overseer takes charge of a plantation, he must make out a *full, perfect, and accurate* list, or inventory, of all the property of every kind upon the plantation, and file a copy of the same with the agent. This inventory is to be considered as the receipt of the overseer for all the property mentioned in it, and for which he *must* account, when discharged or leaving, and before being paid his salary. The agent will examine these inventories and certify to their accuracy, and file them in the office.

2. Quarterly inventories of the stock and implements must be made out; not from the old ones, but by seeing and inspecting every article as written down. The daily record must be written up, and every page of their plantation book appropriated to its particular head. The record of marriages, births, and deaths, with the physician's visits, must be accurately and rigidly kept. The quantity of clothing, supplies, and farming implements received by each overseer, for the plantation he manages, must be entered in his book.

The cotton picked by each hand, every day during the season, must be set down in its proper place.

3. Every article of supply for each plantation must be given out by the agent, and a correct account kept of the same, and charged to the plantation receiving it. The overseers must enter in their books the articles received, so as to check the general record book.

No overseer, employee, or any person else, will be permitted to alter, change, or deviate from my plans, arrangements, and instructions, here expressed, without my consent and approbation.

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\* As enforced by Joseph A. S. Acklen, of Louisiana.

No buildings of *any kind* are to be erected or changed without my consent.

4. No overseer or employee must keep, rear, or have on any of my places any negro, or stock of any kind, without special permission.

No person employed on my estate must trade, traffic, or sell any thing belonging to the estate without permission.

It is very much the custom of overseers to trade in horses, and to be frequently changing them; this I will not permit, and if an overseer is allowed to retain a horse at all, he must use *him exclusively*, and for purposes connected with his business; and whenever this rule is violated, the overseer may consider himself discharged, and must leave as soon as settled with.

5. If any overseer is found absenting himself from his plantation, or riding about the country, to the neglect of his business, must be promptly discharged.

No overseer, or other person will be permitted to retain any of my negroes, except those mentioned, in or about his house, for his own purposes.

No overseer will be suffered to entertain company, or receive visits, except the occasional visit of a friend or relative, and these must be limited.

6. No man should attempt to manage negroes, who is not perfectly firm and fearless; and who, moreover, has not entire control of his temper.

Punishment must never be cruel or abusive, for it is absolutely mean and unmanly to whip a negro from mere passion and malice, and any man who can do so, is utterly unfit to have control of negroes; and if ever any of my negroes are cruelly or inhumanly treated, bruised, maimed, or otherwise injured, the overseer is to be forthwith and promptly dismissed.

No overseer will be allowed to kill stock of any kind, without permission, for it is mine, and if wanted or needed, it is due to me to ask for it.

Sending any of my negroes on errands, or giving, or sending any article belonging to me from any of my places, lending horses or any tool or implement without permission, ensures a dismissal.

My negroes are all permitted to come to me or my agent with their complaints, and in no instance *shall* they be punished for so doing; and in my absence, I enjoin it upon my agent to attend to their complaints, and examine them, and if they have been cruelly or inhumanly treated, the overseer *must be at once discharged*.

Each overseer, on each plantation, must give his personal attention to the stables and stock, and see that the stables are kept in good order, and the stock of all kinds well cared for.



It is part of the contract and duty of the overseer, to see that the horses and mules are properly fed and rubbed, that their stables are clean and well littered; when harnessed and at work, to see that their gearing all fits and does not gall them, recollecting that these animals, though dumb, can feel as well as persons. Animals are much easier managed with kindness than otherwise, and all of my stock of every kind must be particularly attended to. Let the stock-men know that they are watched and held responsible for negligence.

See that the milch cows are driven home night and morning, and properly cared for, with feed and salt. Every place has milch cows sufficient to furnish milk for all the negroes on that place.

Every night before going to bed write up your diary, and think over what is to be done next day, and make a memorandum of it on your slate.

Rise early, and never let the negroes find you in bed of a morning, unless sick. See, in person, that they are all put regularly to their work. After rising, do not idle about, but go directly to the business of the day. If any of the negroes have been reported sick, without delay see what ails them, and that proper medicine and attendance are given.

Wherever the negroes are working it is your duty to be with them, in order to direct and encourage them, and have their work properly done.

See that the negroes are regularly fed, and that their food is wholesome, nutritious, and well cooked, and that they keep themselves clean. At least once in every week, visit each of their houses, and see that they have been swept out and cleaned; examine their bedding, &c., and see that they have been well aired, their clothes mended, and everything attended to which conduces to their comfort and happiness.

Do not permit the houses or fences or gates, to get out of order, and when needing repairs, have it attended to without delay. Keep your wagons, carts, and implements used in planting, always repaired and ready for use, and have them always put under a shed, out of the weather.

Recollect that while in my employ your time is not your own; I pay for it, and shall consider any neglect of my business as so much unjustly taken out of my pocket. If persons call to see you, inform them that you have business to attend to for another, and they must excuse you from those polite courtesies, which might be accorded were you differently circumstanced.

Every overseer must attend exclusively to his own plantation, and for the future will be paid off, when he absents himself for any length of time, say a week or more, without the

permission of myself or agent; and he will not be suffered to hire any one to supervise or take charge of his business, even when permitted to be absent, but the necessary deduction will be taken from his salary.

Foremen, cooks, nurses, stock-tenders, wagoners, &c., appointed or selected by me, are not to be changed, except with my permission. They are not exempt from punishment for imprudence, disobedience, negligence, or misdemeanors, or any of the offences for which the other negroes are punishable.

My gardens, pleasure-grounds, and the domestic establishment, with the servants and all appertaining to this department, are to be free from the control or interference of the overseers.

No overseer will be permitted to have chicken-houses, have patches of ground or gardens for his special use, or to erect or build stables, pens, or other houses for his horse, nor be suffered to have any other than the regular hostler to attend his horse.

The grounds I appropriate for vegetables, and the houses I erect, must answer all his purposes, and he is not to take any field hand to attend to any business for himself.

Every person employed by me, on any of my plantations, must make up his mind to rigidly obey these instructions, and to carry out all my orders, written or verbal, willingly and cheerfully, or to leave on the shortest notice.

(To be concluded in our next.)

#### COMMERCIAL PROSPERITY OF NEW ORLEANS.

Agreeably to our custom, says the editor of the New Orleans Bulletin, at the close of the Commercial year, we have the pleasure of presenting our readers with the following annual review of the New Orleans Market, accompanied by a few remarks suggested by the occasion.

Our object is not to furnish a statistical statement of the trade of the city, embracing both its commercial and its industrial interests, but to report the course of the markets for the principal articles of our commerce since our last annual review, and furnish a succinct yet comprehensive history of their various movement.

In noting, however, the variations in prices, and their relation to other markets, as well as to the rates of freight and exchange, we shall endeavor to add such particulars, derived from the most authentic sources within our reach, as may explain or account for their fluctuations.

On this occasion, at least, we can review the commercial history of the year with gratification; and offer to our readers our sincere congratulations on the general prosperity which has marked the trade of our port. The chief cause of this is

the augmented supply of our leading staple, and the remunerative prices it has commanded throughout the year; but in addition to this, we may specify the increase in the supplies of Tobacco, Flour, Wheat, Corn, Oats, Barrel and Bulk Pork, Beef and Whiskey, and the high prices which they also have commanded, as influential causes of the general prosperity.

On the other hand the effect of the decrease in the receipts of Sugar, Molasses, Bacon and Lard, has been to some extent counteracted by the high prices at which these articles have ruled, adding handsomely to the credit side of profit and loss, whether from the gains of the owner or the enhanced commissions of the factor.

Underlying this prosperity, and furnishing its great stimulant, if not its foundation and source, we must note the blessings of abundant harvests and the advantages we have possessed in common with the whole commercial world in an abundant supply of money for the movement of our principal products. In this connection we must advert to the Eastern War and scanty harvests abroad which have opened to our farmers remunerative markets for their surplus, while there appears to have been but little restriction in the consumption of our leading staple.

Another cause of our commercial prosperity is one which is partial in its effects, and which, while it has benefitted our Mercantile Community, has had an injurious influence on the general welfare of the city. We allude to the comparatively limited competition in the various branches of our trade.—Probably at no former period have there been so few new commercial houses established, and the business of the city being chiefly confined to comparatively old or well established firms, who have been content with the emoluments accruing from the even tenor of their way, business generally has exhibited unusual steadiness and regularity. There have been fewer failures, fewer heavy losses, and fewer disappointments in the general trade. But these very circumstances, which are a just cause of satisfaction to our commercial community, furnish indications far from encouraging to the permanent citizen who desires the increase of the city in trade, wealth, and population. If there has been less competition than usual, it has been owing to the absence of new houses, whose wants, had they been established, would have pressed upon the supply of shops, stores warehouses, and dwellings, enhancing rents and the value of real estate, and furnishing at the same time an increased market for the city trade. In fact our commercial prosperity must be attributed more to general than local causes, and although our merchants have done a prosperous business, it cannot be denied that the result would have been still more

gratifying had it not been for an actual increase instead of a decrease in the those influences which have been operating for some years in diverting trade from our city to the Northern markets. Hence if there has been a gratifying increase in the receipts of certain articles, the increase has been much less than it would have been had it not been for this diversion, and our real estate holders, who are mainly interested in this question, must be blind indeed, if they imagine that the prosperity of trade for the past season is a reliable indication of the future. With abundant crops, high rivers, and a European demand, we cannot fail to witness a recurrence of our present commercial prosperity, but these are not always to be expected, and the means used to divert trade from us, are invariable in their operation. Thus, while there has been an extraordinary abundance of money, of which the truest indication is the appreciation of Bank and other solid stocks, real estate has shown no corresponding improvement, the general conviction appearing to be that until some great change occurs, which will largely augment our population, the supply of improved and unimproved real property will still exceed the demand, and the paramount influence of the laws of supply and demand, prevent any advance in prices.

It therefore becomes the duty of every intelligent citizen, who is not a mere bird of passage, expecting, after reaping a certain harvest, to fly to a more favorite clime, but who has really the interest of the city at heart, to consider well what means are practicable and expedient to increase both our trade and our population. On this point we shall add some remarks at the close of this article, and shall now proceed to review the progress of our various markets.

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### THE CONSTITUTION OF MAN AND SLAVERY.

AN INQUIRY INTO THE NATURAL CONSTITUTION OF MAN, IN CONNECTION WITH THE INSTITUTION OF DOMESTIC SLAVERY, SHOWING THE RELATION BETWEEN NATURE AND LAW, AND THE ORIGIN AND AUTHORITY OF THE LATTER.

What are we to understand by the natural constitution of man? Certainly nothing that partakes of the quality of voluntary, or free. What nature has effected for man, man cannot be said to have himself freely effected. We may state the proposition differently and arrive at the same result.

Whatever man can voluntarily do, nature cannot be said to do. We may hold man to be a voluntary being in virtue of his natural constitution, but then what he does free in virtue of his natural freedom of action is not done by nature, but by him freely; and if freely, out of the restraint of nature.



This shows us the distinction between the *gift* of freedom, and the *acts* consequent upon that natural endowment.

The latter are free, but the first is natural. Now what does natural freedom mean? It means liberty of action *without natural restraint*.

We say the same thing when we say that nature does not give us a power to act and then restrain that power. This were a contradiction in terms.

Wherein nature restrains us, we manifestly have no natural freedom.

For example. If nature imparts to mankind the power of upright motion—the power to walk—and then restrains that power by enabling us only to crawl, she would involve herself in a plain contradiction. If she were to restrain our power of motion to walking, she could not possibly give us the power of flying.

This example (and I might furnish a thousand similar ones) serves to show us that we cannot be restrained by nature in the enjoyment of any *natural* liberty.

Now natural liberty means natural power or natural ability, or natural possibility of action.

Every act that a human being can possibly commit, he has the natural freedom to do it.

I do not say he has a moral or a legal freedom.

Our natural liberty consists in freely doing every thing we have the natural power of doing.

If this were not so, a code of moral rules of action and a code of civil rules of action would be alike useless and unnecessary.

Upon what basis does a code of morals repose? Certainly upon our *natural* freedom to disobey them.

The very same remark may be made with equal truth touching civil rules.

What would be the use of a rule of civil conduct unless we had natural freedom to disobey it? None in the world.

If we have no natural freedom to disobey moral and civil rules of conduct, how could we ever acquire any liberty to disobey them?

We could not get the liberty to disobey a moral rule of conduct from the department of morality, and we could not procure the liberty to disobey a civil rule from the civil law-maker. The only remaining possible source of the liberty of disobeying moral and civil rules must be in nature.

Hence natural freedom consists in the liberty to disobey moral and civil rules of conduct, prescribed as these latter rules are, by the author of moral laws and of civil laws.

With respect to *natural* liberty all men stand upon an equality.

Hence it is true, that all men are created equal. They sprung from the hand of nature with equal natural abilities or liberties.

Hence it is that a system of moral and civil rules can work no peculiar hardship, for all men have an equal liberty to obey or to disobey them as they see proper.

Now, when nature restrains, she restrains by creation. Hence her laws are unchangeably fixed and non-voluntary.

All philosophers agree in the doctrine—that nature is uniform in all her laws. In other words, all men have an almost instinctive confidence in the stability of nature.

Hence there can be no conceivable possibility be a rule of action prescribed by nature for man which he could disregard, for that would open the door for want of harmony or consistency in nature.

Hence there can be no right rules of nature as applicable to voluntary beings.

A voluntary being is one who can either do a certain thing or not, as he prefers.

Now, if nature be uniform and consistent, she cannot say to man that he may either do a certain thing or not do it, for with regard to the thing to be done she would lack uniformity and consistency. She would in that regard be plainly self-contradictory.

For example. Suppose nature were to have decreed that man should obey a certain law, man's not obeying that law would be in opposition to nature. Now, can nature give a liberty to obey a law, and be consistent, and also give a liberty to disobey it?

Were she to do so would she not be justly chargeable with inconsistency? I hold to the uniformity of nature, and hence I hold that nature has given all men equal liberties. In this she is consistent and uniform.

Now it is utterly impossible for nature to be consistent and uniform were she to give a liberty and then restrain that liberty by a rule of conduct applicable to voluntary beings.

Nature and creation in this connection imply the same thing—the same power. If then, man be created to obey a certain law, he cannot also be created to disobey it, unless creation be inconsistent and inharmonious.

Nature may very consistently make a free agent—may create a voluntary being, and *that voluntary being* may be restrained by moral and civil rules of action or conduct; but, then, we must carefully distinguish between the provence of nature and the provence of the voluntary being.

In order to make a voluntary being he must be allowed to be inconsistent and changeable. He must be allowed to

change from the observance of any law to the non-observance of that law. But nature is never inconsistent, but upon the contrary—ever uniform.

Now, if a thing be not uniform, it cannot be natural.

This train of reasoning leads us to adopt the definition which Mr. Justice Blackstone gives of civil liberty. He defined it to be "no other than natural liberty, so far restrained as is necessary and expedient for the general advantage."

This definition is sound and unimpeachable; but the great question that arises from its consideration, is, what is, or what constitutes the general advantage of society as such?

In answer to this question, I reply, that it is the observance of the rules of moral conduct.

Subsidiary to this highest social advantage, is the *temporal* prosperity of the individuals comprising the body politic.

The very first blessing which can be conferred upon any people congregated together in the form of society, is the general knowledge and the general observance of moral rules of conduct. Where this is the case universally, civil rules of conduct are unnecessary.

It is said, in the Declaration of American Independence, "that all men are created equal, that they are endowed by their Creator with certain inalienable rights, that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness." Let us examine the philosophy of these principles.

In the first place, all men are created equal in respect to natural liberties. There are exceptions to this rule, it is very true, but they only prove the truth of the rule. These exceptions are what we call *lusus nature*, or a freak of nature. For example. All men are created equal, because nature gives all men two eyes and two legs and two arms and an organ of thought, and the power of emotion or passion. But there are exceptions to these natural endowments, or liberties.

Now, when we come to talk about *civil* rules of conduct, nature and the gifts of nature are aside from them. Nature makes no rule of civil conduct. Were it to do so, it would cease to be civil, and become natural and unchangeable.

A civil rule has for its author a human law-giver.

A natural law or rule has an eternal Creator.

A natural law cannot have a temporal origin and a temporary application.

Nature does not make us equal before the tribunal of a civil rule of conduct, only to the extent of allowing us the equal liberty of obeying or of disobeying it.

A, for example, cannot disobey a rule of civil government and claim for that ability any natural advantage over B, for B has the very same natural liberty to disobey it that A had.

Now, this natural freedom is inalienable. Mankind cannot alienate their natural liberty of disobeying civil or moral rules. If they could do this, their power in this respect would be a power to alter nature, and this is an act of creation. An act of creation is essentially a divine power. A created being cannot alter or change their natural liberties. There is a wide distinction, however, between changing and restraining.

I may restrain myself in the enjoyment or exercise of my natural liberties, but I cannot alter my natural liberties unless I could alter my nature. To alienate them is impossible. For example. A brother has the natural liberty \* \* \* \* \*. Indeed, it is to this very natural freedom that our race is indebted for its continuation. Without this natural ability, it would have ceased to exist in the family of Adam, the original progenitor of us all.

A son, for example, has the natural liberty to destroy the life of his parents, and it is no very unusual occurrence in the history of our race for sons to avail themselves of this natural freedom. Now, this freedom is utterly unchangeable, since it comes from the hand of nature. If it be unchangeable, it is therefore *inalienable*.

Now, when the Supreme Being introduced moral rules of conduct, restraining the brother; and the son from destroying the lives of his parents, he did not thereby alter nature. His object was not to alter nature, but only to restrain natural abilities within the compass of moral government.

When the human law-giver passes a rule of conduct, (take for example the law in respect to domestic slavery,) he does not seek to alter, change, modify or abridge natural liberty, but only to bring natural liberty within the compass of civil rules of conduct. Its object is only *temporarily* to restrain it—to restrain it until the law-giver sees proper to change the law. A civil law only has force temporarily, that is while it continues to be the law of the supreme or ultimate law-giver—a human legislature. Unquestionably, the right of life, of liberty, and of the pursuit of happiness, are inalienable natural liberties; that is to say—no man can surrender his life, or his liberty, or his happiness, and the reason why he cannot make the surrender, is because he has no power of changing natural endowments.

But because we have no natural liberty to surrender our lives or liberties, it does not therefore follow that we commit a *wrong action* when we do make the surrender.

When we come to speak of a *wrong action*, something else is implied than nature and natural liberties. It requires a *moral law* to make a *wrong action*.

Alab  
Arka  
Calif  
Conn  
Delaw  
Flori  
Georg  
Illino  
India  
Iowa  
Kent  
Louis  
Maine  
Maryl  
Mass  
Michi  
Missis  
Missou  
New  
New  
New Y  
North  
Ohio  
Penns  
Rhode



Suppose I were to apply to nature in order to find the right that would enable *me* to alienate my natural life, or my natural liberty, to what standard of right, or to what source of authority, known to men, could I apply in order to find a warrant for the alienation? I know of none.

I could not find it in nature, for it is nature that gives or makes the right of life. *Nature* cannot be consistent and uniform and give me the right to live and the right to destroy my life or to alienate it. If I wish then to alienate my life or liberty, I must apply to one of three sources: 1. Either to nature; or 2, to maral law; or, 3, to a human tribunal.

It is obvious that none of these sources can supply a right to take away the natural right of life. It is unnatural, immoral, and against the civil code.

Now, it follows that no man can alienate his life, or his liberty, or his natural happiness. But does it, therefore, follow that the Supreme Being, or that civil society cannot rightly *take away* what nature has given?

The right of society to take away life, or liberty, (I mean of course natural life and natural liberty) is a very different question from the one of the right of individual alienation of them.

(To be continued in our next.)

#### POPULATION AND PROPERTY OF THE UNITED STATES.

The Secretary of the Treasury, in a recent communication to Congress, gives the following table, showing the population of the different States and Territories, and the value of real and personal estate therein; prepared in part from enumerations and valuations, and in part from estimates:

*Population and Property of the United States.*

States.	Population.	Value of Property.	States.	Population.	Value of Property.
Alabama .....	805,199	\$279,283,027	South Carolina....	705,661	308,484,240
Arkansas .....	253,117	64,240,726	Tennessee.....	1,092,470	321,776,810
California .....	335,000	165,000,000	Texas .....	500,000	240,000,000
Connecticut .....	400,202	209,756,831	Vermont .....	325,203	91,165,000
Delaware .....	97,295	30,466,924	Virginia.....	1,512,593	530,394,387
Florida .....	110,725	40,461,461	Wisconsin.....	552,109	57,500,000
Georgia .....	905,000	500,000,000	District of Columbia	60,000	25,568,703
Illinois .....	1,242,917	399,237,474	<b>Territories.</b>		
Indiana .....	1,149,606	301,858,474	Minnesota.....	65,000	20,000,000
Iowa .....	325,014	110,000,000	New Mexico.....	63,500	7,250,000
Kentucky .....	1,036,587	411,000,193	Oregon.....	36,000	7,775,000
Louisiana .....	600,387	270,425,000	Washington .....	5,500	1,650,000
Maine.....	693,802	137,128,136	Utah .....	39,000	4,250,000
Maryland .....	639,580	261,243,600	Kansas.....	11,000	2,350,000
Massachusetts.....	1,133,123	597,936,905	Nebraska.....	4,500	1,235,644
Michigan.....	509,374	116,593,580			
Mississippi.....	671,640	251,525,000			
Missouri.....	831,215	323,943,731			
New Hampshire....	324,701	103,804,327			
New Jersey.....	569,499	179,750,000			
New York.....	3,470,059	1,364,154,625			
North Carolina....	921,532	289,608,372			
Ohio .....	2,215,750	560,377,354			
Pennsylvania.....	2,542,960	1,031,731,304			
Rhode Island.....	166,927	91,609,850			
			26,964,312 9,817,611,073		
			This sum to be added for pro-		
			perty not valued, for under		
			valuations, and for the rise in		
			the value of property since		
			1850.....\$1,500,000,000		
			Total.....11,317,611,073		

In the construction of this table, when the enumerations and valuations are not given from official State returns, it has been assumed that the population and property of the country have increased in the same ratio since the general census of 1850, in which they increased during the decennial period from 1840 to 1850. The increase has, without doubt, been proportionally greater.

In some States the latest official valuations have been given. These are of various dates, and are, it is believed, much too low. The valuation for Massachusetts is for the year 1850; for Maryland and Michigan, for 1853; for Connecticut, New York, and Missouri, for 1854; and for other States, for 1855.

With respect to some of the States, the official valuation is so very low, that it has been deemed necessary to add to it considerably, in order to represent fairly the true value of the property in those States. Thus: to Pennsylvania \$500,000,000 have been added; to Virginia, Tennessee, and Missouri \$100,000,000 each.

Texas and California are exceptional cases, and their population and wealth have been estimated upon such data as could be obtained. The Comptroller of Texas is the authority for that State.

The Governor of Georgia says, in a letter to the Secretary of the Treasury, dated the 18th of April, 1856, that in that State "the total amount of the taxable property of all kinds is about \$500,000,000."

The Governor of Minnesota says, in a letter, dated January 29th, 1856, that the returns he transmits of the value of the property in that Territory "are but approximations," the returns not being complete.

The official valuation of the property in the Territory of Nebraska, for the year 1855, was so small—only \$617,822—that it was thought proper to double it in the table, and it is still too low probably.

The Auditor of State, of the State of Indiana, says, in his annual report (November 24th, 1855): "A new valuation of the real estate would probably make the total taxables \$380,000,000."

The Territories of Kansas, Nebraska, and Washington do not appear at all in the census of 1850, except as component parts of other States or Territories, and with respect to them, the estimated numbers and values may be very inaccurate, as they may be, indeed, with respect to the other Territories, and some of the new States.

The State valuations of property are for assessment purposes, and are not only low, but the taxable property only has been valued, and in all the States there are many kinds of property—some of it valuable—that are not taxed.

Supposing the whole population of the United States to be 27,000,000, then, taking the State of Maine as a criterion with respect to the value of property, the amount for all the States and Territories will be, in round numbers, about \$5,760,000,000.

Taking the State of New York as a criterion, the amount will be, in round numbers, about \$10,611,000,000.

Taking the State of Kentucky, then it will be about \$10,000,000,000.

Taking the State of Illinois, it will be about \$7,290,000,000.

Taking the State of Arkansas, it will be about \$6,750,000,000.

Taking the State of Georgia, it will be about \$14,430,000,000.

Taking the two extremes, the maximum and the minimum, Georgia and Maine united, it will be about \$10,000,000,000.

Taking Ohio and Kentucky, which will make, perhaps, a very fair mean, the amount will be \$10,268,000,000.

Taking these seven States as a criterion, the amount will be about \$9,233,000,000. This is too low, however, for the official valuation is too low in them all, unless it be Georgia.

The \$1,500,000,000 added for under valuations for property not valued, and for the increase in value since in 1850, is not an excessive allowance.

In the calculations, inconsiderable fraction of numbers and values have not been regarded.

#### GROWTH AND CONSUMPTION OF COTTON IN THE UNITED STATES.

We take the following summary from the New York Shipping List.

##### *Consumption.*

Total crop of the United States, as before stated .....	bales....	3,527,845
Add—Stock on hand at the commencement of the year, 1st September, 1855,		
In the Southern ports.....	76,644	
In the Northern ports.....	66,692—143,336	
Makes a supply of.....		3,671,181
Deduct therefrom—		
The exports to foreign ports... 2,954,606		
Less, foreign included.....	835—2,953,771	
Stocks on hand, 1st September, 1856:		
In the Southern ports.....	20,014	
In the Northern ports.....	44,157—	64,171
Burnt in New York and Boston.....	500	
	—	3,018,442
Taken for home use.....		652,739

*Quantity consumed by and in the hands of the Manufacturers north of Virginia.*

1855-'6.....bales	652,739	1850-'1.....bales	404,108
1854-'5.....	593,584	1849-'50.....	487,769
1853-'4.....	610,571	1848-'9.....	518,039
1852-'3.....	671,009	1847-'8.....	531,772
1851-'2.....	603,029	1846-'7.....	427,967
1845-'6.....	422,597	1840-'1.....	297,288
1844-'5.....	389,006	1839-'40.....	295,193
1843-'4.....	346,744	1838-'9.....	276,018
1842-'3.....	325,129	1837-'8.....	246,063
1841-'2.....	267,850	1836-'7.....	222,540
1835-'6.....	236,733	1830-'1.....	182,142
1834-'5.....	216,888	1829-'30.....	126,512
1833-'4.....	196,413	1828-'9.....	104,853
1832-'3.....	194,412	1827-'8.....	120,593
1831-'2.....	173,800	1826-'7.....	103,433

We give below our usual table of the amount of cotton consumed the last year in the States south and west of Virginia, and not included in the receipts at the ports. We have largely increased the estimate from the year previous, but only give it only for what it purports to be—an estimate which we believe approximates correctness. Thus:

	1849.	1850.	1851.	1852.
North Carolina.....bales	20,000	20,000	13,000	15,000
South Carolina.....	15,000	15,000	10,000	10,000
Georgia.....	20,500	27,000	13,000	22,000
Alabama.....	7,000	6,000	4,000	5,000
Tennessee.....	12,000	12,000	8,000	7,000
On the Ohio, &c.....	35,500	27,500	12,000	16,000
Total to September 1st....	110,000	107,000	60,000	75,000
	1853.	1854.	1855.	1856.
North Carolina.....bales	20,000	20,000	18,500	22,000
South Carolina.....	10,000	12,000	10,500	15,000
Georgia.....	20,000	23,000	20,500	25,000
Alabama.....	5,000	6,000	5,500	6,500
Tennessee.....	5,000	6,000	4,000	7,000
On the Ohio, &c.....	30,000	38,000	26,000	42,000
Total to September 1st....	90,000	105,000	85,000	117,500

To which, if we add (for the past year) the stocks in the interior towns 1st inst., (say 3,500 bales,) the quantity now detained in the interior, (say 50,000 bales,) and that lost on its way to market the past year, to the crop as given above, re-



ceived at the shipping ports, the aggregate will show, as near as may be, the amount raised in the United States the past season—say, in round numbers, 3,335,000 bales, (after deducting 1,800 bales new crop received this year to 1st inst., and some 250,000 bales detained in the interior, September 1st, 1855, by low rivers, etc., which it is fair to suppose came forward the past season, and is already added to the receipts at the ports,) against

Bales.	Bales.	Bales.
1855... 3,178,000	1852... 3,100,000	1849... 2,840,000
1854... 3,000,000	1851... 2,450,000	1848... 2,357,000
1853... 3,360,000	1850... 2,212,000	

The quantity of new cotton received at the shipping ports to 1st September, was in

Bales.	Bales.	Bales.
1856..... 1,800	1852..... 5,125	1848..... 3,000
1855..... 34,079	1851..... 3,200	1847..... 1,121
1854..... 1,890	1850..... 255	1846..... 200
1853..... 716	1849..... 575	1845..... 7,500

#### VARIETIES OF COTTON IN CULTIVATION.

The following illustration (see next page) exhibits the appearance of the different varieties of Cotton which are in cultivation, and enter into the markets of the world. For a full account of each the reader will consult the great work of Dr. Royle, on the Culture and Commerce of Cotton, published in London in 1851. (See figures.)

1. *Dacca* Cotton.
2. *Bourbon* Cotton.
3. *Sea Island* Cotton.
4. *Upland* or *New Orleans* Cotton.
5. *Brazil*, *Pernambuco*, *Bahia*, *Peruvian*—the seeds adhering together like a cone.

The *Dacca* is in cultivation in Bengal and Coromandel, and furnishes the exceedingly fine cotton used in manufacturing the exquisitely delicate muslins of that place.

The *Bourbon* Cotton is so named from having been grown in the Isle of Bourbon, where it is supposed to have been introduced by the French from the West Indies. Its seeds were early distributed by Dr. Anderson throughout the Peninsula. Dr. Wright, Mr. Fisher and others, state that its cultivation is now common in many of the Southern districts.

*Sea Island* Cotton.—Dr. Royle says, from the specimens which he has seen of the cotton cultivated in Egypt, that it is a variety of this species, and he infers it is probable that, because the *Sea Island* cotton would be found to belong to the same when the cultivation was commenced in Egypt, seed would most likely be introduced from the then best known sources. The other two varieties, the long and short-stapled kinds, or "*Sea Islands*" and "*Uplands*" as they are called, are derived from the same stock as the *Bourbon*. The *Sea Island* variety has succeeded in some parts of India, as under Mr. Elphinstone's care in the maritime district of *Ratnagerry*.



Bourbon Cotton.



Sea Island Cotton.



Brazil Cotton.



3a.



Upland Georgian Cotton



Dacca Cotton

## RATES OF LABOR IN SAN FRANCISCO.

In presenting our usual quarterly table of the labor paid in San Francisco, says the San Francisco Prices Current, and which has been carefully reviewed and corrected for this issue, we beg leave to call attention to some strong points of difference existing now, and which heretofore did not exist. We refer to the very sensible decrease in the remuneration obtained by nearly all classes of operatives in this city. The reduction which have been taking place ever since the monetary crises of 1855, in the various establishments, whether merchantile or industrial, of course have been severely felt in all classes of mechanical labor, which, in turn, have been forced to submit to new scales of wages. Heretofore it has been assumed that our proximity to the mines, where, no matter what a man's occupation was, his simple ability to dig earth and wheel a barrow was sure to yield him a handsome equivalent, had its natural effect in keeping up the rates of labor in this city. Matters have changed no less in the mining localities than they have with us, and the great mass of laborers there being mainly dependant on the employment afforded them by companies, whether water, tunnelling, or quartz crushing it matters little, the fact being that the day for individual labor and profit has mainly passed away, and with the systematical mode of working by companies now in full practice has come a consequent reduction of wages. Many mechanics and workmen who have tried the mines, as few there are who have not after a residence of from one to three years in this country, have returned to the city content to submit to ordinary wages, even at a large discount, rather than continue to toil at an occupation laborious in the extreme, to such as have been accustomed to the usual routine of the workshop and bench; and thus the market has been glutted with a superabundance of hands in almost every department of labor. The obscurity of titles to, and the vexatious delays which now for so great a length of time have attained their litigation and settlement, of course has had a most disastrous effect on all branches of industry pertaining to building. For a long time scarcely a single edifice could be seen going up in any portion of our city, and consequently rates for the labor of masons, bricklayers, carpenters, &c., &c., remained merely nominal. At the present time we have a most gratifying improvement to note over former months, although the demand for this species of labor is not as extensive as we could wish, at the same time the prospects for the future are brightening, and with the gradual rebuilding, firmly, substantially, even if slowly, of certain parts

of our fair metropolis, we look forward to the more general employment of all classes and degrees of our mechanical population.

Blacksmiths.....	\$5 00a6 00 per diem	Harness makers. 2 50a4 00 per diem	
Do Helpers...	3 00a4 00 "	Millers (2 grades) 5 00a7 00 "	
Ship Smiths.....	5 00a6 00 "	Engineers (sta-	
Do Helpers...	3 00a4 00 "	tionary engines 3 50a6 00 "	
Locksmiths.....	3 00a6 00 "	Firemen.....	5 00 "
Coppersmiths.....	5 00a6 00 "	Bookbinders.....	6 00 "
Gunsmiths.....	5 00 "	Do Folders.....	3 00 "
Metal Turners....	4 00a5 00 "	Cartmen.....	2 50 "
Wood Turners....	4 00a5 00 "	Day Laborers.....	2 50 "
Fire-proof Shutter		Watchmakers.....	8 00 "
and Railing ma-		Jewelers.....	8 00 "
kers.....	4 00a5 00 "	Chasers.....	10 00 "
Brass Founders...	4 00a5 00 "	Lapidaries.....	9 00 "
Boilers makers and		Brickmakers.....	\$50a90 per month
Riveters.....	5 00a6 00 "		and found.
Pattern makers and		Do Moulders.....	75a100 "
Moulders.....	5 00a6 00 "	Do Burners.....	100a125 "
Finishers.....	5 00a6 00 "	Lime Burners.....	50a 60 "
Plumbers.....	5 00a6 00 "	Matress makers.....	30a 40 "
House Carpenters		Hostlers.....	70 "
and Joiners....	4 50a6 00 "	Waiters (in hotels)...	30a 40 "
Ship Carpenters...	6 00a7 00 "	Chambermaids.....	25 "
Boat Builders....	6 00a7 00 "	Cooks.....	75a150 "
Caulkers.....	7 00 "	Deck hands (river navi-	
Tin Workers.....	3 50a4 00 "	gation).....	50 per month
Tin Roofers.....	5 00 "	Engineers.....do...	200 "
Carriage Makers..	4 00a5 00 "	Do Assistants..do...	125 "
Wheelwrights....	4 00a5 00 "	Firemen.....do...	60 "
Pile Drivers.....	4 00 "	Waiters.....do...	40 "
Coopers.....	5 00 "	Mates.....do...	150 "
House Painters...	4 00a5 00 "	Stewarts.....do...	100 "
Sign Painters, gold		Pilots.....do...	200 "
lettering per let-		Cooks.....	100 "
ter.....	40a60 cts	Tailors.....	75a100 "
do, plain do, per		Seamens wages, (foreign)	\$30 "
letter.....	25a55 cts	advance.....	18 "
Sail Makers.....	6 00 "	Seamens' wages, (coastwise)	30 "
Riggers.....	6 00 "	Mates.....	50a60 "
Stevedors.....	6 00 "	Mill Sawyers.....	100 "
Granite Dressers..	3 50a5 00 "	Do Planers.....	100 "
Marble Cutters...	4 00a5 00 "	Lumbermen (in yards)...	100 "
Do Polishers...	2 00a3 00 "	Bakers.....	75a100 "
Wood Sawyers.....	6 00 "	Barbers.....	50a100 "
Freestone Cutters.	5 00a6 00 "	Butchers & Slaugh-	
Stone Masons.....	5 00a6 00 "	terers.....	75a100 "
Ballast cutters...	1 00a2 50 "	Upholsters, paper-	
Bricklayers.....	6 00 "	hangers, &c.....	75a100 "
Hodmen.....	3 00 "	Servant girls.....	30a 40 "
Plasterers.....	6 00 "	Porters in stores....	30a125 "
Shoemakers.....	2 00a4 00 "	Draymen.....	.75 per month
Hatters.....	\$50 a\$100 per week	Printers.....	\$1 per 1,000 ems.
Pump and Block			or \$40 per week,
makers.....	5 00 per diem		



## ACCIDENTS AND DISEASES OF THE COTTON PLANT.\*

Cotton, like many other plants, is subject to diseases, caused principally by accidents, the defects of the soil in which it grows, the depredations of insects, and the effects of the weather. Those which are the most fatal may be described as follows:—

**SORE-SHIN.**—One of the diseases to which the cotton-plant is subject, commonly known among planters as the “sore-shin,” is sometimes occasioned by a careless stroke of the hoe, scraping the outer bark from the stem while the plant is yet young and tender. The sap being arrested by the wound, that part of the main stem above the injury dwindles away, becoming both weak and brittle. Although the regenerative powers of the plant may afterwards produce new bark from the sides of the wound, and the injury heal up, leaving only a larger or smaller cicatrix, or scar, according to the extent of the wound received, the stem eventually becoming so attenuated and weak, as frequently to break off at or above the place where the wound was first made.

The preventive of this disease would be, to take great care when hoeing, not to bruise nor injure the young plant, as, when the growth is once stopped by an accidental bruise, or abrasion of the bark, the plant, if not broked down by storms, or the weight of its own top foliage, will always appear stunted or weak.

There is also said to be another species of “sore-shin,” to which the young cotton-plant is liable, differing entirely from that occasioned by careless hoeing, the cause of which is attributed by many to cold, cutting winds, when the plant is very young. Others, however, assert that, when a high wind shakes the tender plant, the main stem is so much bent and twisted, that the sap-vessels are upturned, and a serious injury occurs; but the wound is sometimes healed, and if the cotton grows vigorously afterwards, it apparently outgrows the shock.

**FRENCHING.**—In certain portions of the plantation, in many parts of Florida, individual plants grow with white or variegated leaves. This peculiarity is termed “Frenching;” but, as I observed only a few thus marked, it may, perhaps, be only a sport of nature, similar to the variegated leaves of cultivated plants of our gardens. Indian corn, however, is subject to “French;” and, in this case, the disease has been attributed to some imperfection of the soil; to improper use of manures, as well as to various other causes. Be this as it may, it appears as if only certain spots, varying in area in the same field, are attacked, sometimes in succession, year after year, while

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\* By Townsend Glover, of the Patent Office.

the remainder of the crop is perfectly healthy and good. When corn is thus *Frenched* on what are termed "Frenched lands," it grows light-colored, sometimes almost white, or striped, and bears no crop. Until this Frenched land has been thoroughly and properly analysed, it would be useless to say anything more on the subject so little understood; and I merely mention this disease here to invite public attention to it, and to induce practical farmers to experiment, in order to find out the cause, and, should one be discovered, to suggest some remedy for its removal.

THE EFFECTS OF A BAD SUB-SOIL.—When on the plantation of Major Haywood, of Tallahassee, in Florida, in the month of August, several very fine, and apparently healthy cotton-plants, from 4 to 5 feet in height, covered with forms and bolls, were observed to be dying suddenly, in certain spots, the leaves being withered, as if the damage had been done within twenty-four hours. Such plants eventually died; and, on taking them up, no worm, insect, nor injury, either external or internal, could be discovered; and the only conclusion that could be drawn was, that some of the roots had suddenly penetrated into a soil totally unfitted for, and evidently deleterious to, the life of the plant. What rendered it the more singular was, the fact that other cotton-plants were growing most luxuriantly within one or two feet of that which was stricken.

THE RUST.—The cotton-plant is also subject to a disease called the "rust." The leaves, when first attacked, appear rather yellower than the rest, with red spots on the surface, and often, margined with the same red color. These leaves then turn yellower and redder every day, until the plant assumes a bright-red or almost a carmine appearance, when, finally, the whole of the foliage turns more of a brown color and falls to the earth. When the disease attacks the boll, it assumes a different appearance, and is termed the "red" or "black" rust, as the case may be. The cotton, in such bolls as have been attacked by the black rust, and the bolls themselves, shrivel up, and turn dark-colored, as if they had been severely blighted or mildewed, and are totally valueless.

This disease has been attributed to leaving pokeberry plants in the field. But this, I have never observed, and suppose the assumption to be on the same principle that the mildew on wheat was formerly attributed to the influence of the berberry bush. Others state that rust is owing to an undue proportion of lime in the earth, and that it is no doubt caused by some organic or inorganic imperfection of the soil in which it is grown; but, until such soil shall have been thoroughly analysed, and its component parts correctly ascertained, nothing certain can be known about it. There is also another theory in regard to

the subject of the rust: that it is entirely owing to atmospheric changes, and not to the soil. Experiments, however, ought to be instituted to find out the real cause, and the result made known, as the disease has done, and is at present doing, much injury to the crops of the South. Salt, sown at the rate of half a bushel to the acre among cotton, is stated to be a certain preventive of the rust, and to restore the plant to its former vigor; but several planters whom I have spoken to on the subject, deny the fact, and say that salt had no effect whatever.

There is also another species of rust caused by an *acarus*, which will be found described on a preceding page.

**SHEDDING OF YOUNG BUDS, OR BOLLS, CAUSED BY WET WEATHER.** When the cotton-blooms, or flowers, are exposed to the heavy and beating rains of a Southern climate, especially between the hours of ten and two, as they are opening, or have already opened, it frequently happens that such blooms prove barren. The outer calyx turns yellow, and eventually the unfertilized flower and immature boll fall to the ground, the seeds turn brown, and the fibre of the cotton is worthless. This is generally attributed to the heavy drops of rain washing away the pollen which should have impregnated the pistil; the embryo seed-vessel, of course, never matures, but dries up and perishes. Bees, wasps, and insects in general, are Nature's agents in distributing the pollen, or fertilising dust. As they fly from flower to flower, small particles of this dust adhere to some part of their bodies or limbs, with which they impregnate the next flower while in search of honey or more dust.

Sometimes the pistil and stamens of a cotton-bloom are found eaten in such a manner as to distort them. This injury is often caused by the very young boll-worm, which, penetrating the young flower-bud by a hole through the outer calyx, where the egg was laid, after eating several of the enclosed stamens and anthers, and injuring one side of the pistil, bores into the embryo boll, before it is shed. I have reared several caterpillars found in such situations, and proved them to be the true boll-worm. Moreover, I have found the hatched shell of the egg on the outer calyx, and traced the caterpillar's track through the petals to the stamens, and finally to the boll itself. I will not, however, enlarge on this subject here, but refer to the article on "The Boll-worm," in a former part of this Report.

**THE ROT.**—The "rot" has been attributed to a variety of causes, such as changes in the atmosphere, defects in the soil, the attacks of insects, and to the growth of fungi. Mr. Troup, in the "American Farmer," describes its appearance with great accuracy. He says: "The first indication is seen in a small circular spot on the outside of the boll, exhibiting a

darker green than the circumjacent parts; as if a globule of water had been dropped upon it, and been absorbed. Many of these are frequently seen at the same time on the same boll. They spread themselves, sometimes faster, sometimes slower, as if induced, either by the state of the atmosphere, or condition of the plant, changing color as they progress, until they assume a dark-brown, approaching to black, and until the whole exterior is in like manner affected; or until it receives, from some cause, a sudden check, and then this appearance is only partial. In the first case, the disease has penetrated to the centre of the fruit, the fermentation is complete and universal, and is seen in a frothy, white liquid thrown out on the surface. Putrefaction follows, and the destruction of the seed and immature wool being finished, nothing is left but the rind, or exterior coating of the boll, which, exhausted of its juices, hardens, turns black, and thus terminates the process. In the other case, (that of suddenly checked disease,) the interior of the boll in some instances remains unhurt; in others, it is only partially injured; and, in the last case, the pods, remaining unhurt, mature and expand. This, however, rarely happens, as the disease is wonderfully capricious, going and coming unaccountably, attacking at one time with more, at another with less violence; so that the fruit, which escapes entire destruction on the first attack, may fall a victim on the second. Nor is this capriciousness justly attributable to the changes in the atmosphere, as its origin does not seem to have any connection with the weather."

It is very difficult to find out the true cause of this disease, as it sometimes appears in dry as well as in wet years, although it is generally more destructive during rainy seasons. The young bolls are often found rotted, as well as the half-matured and old, so that the age of the fruit does not appear to have anything to do with it. Many of them may have the interior entirely dried up and destroyed, while others will open with only one or two segments rotted, the rest being perfectly healthy, and filled with good white cotton.

As to the theory of a defect in the soil, it has been stated by some planters that barnyard manure will often produce it; but if this is the case, it is somewhat singular that it has often been observed that one plant may be very badly affected by the rot, while others on each side are perfectly healthy and uninjured, as has often been observed. This fact appears to show that a great deal depends upon the constitution of the plant itself, which may be inherited from its parent, and perhaps a choice of good sound seed, from strong and healthy plants only, might in time have a great effect in remedying this disease; and as we know that much depends upon the



vigor, health, and prolific qualities of the parent plant, it might perhaps be well to make experiments by planting seen of diseased, and sound, healthy plants, in the same situation and soil.

The fungoid growth, found on the old rotted bolls, when they begin to open, may perhaps be regarded more as the result than the cause of the disease. \*Several insects, it is true, have been found in these rotten bolls, where most probably they had crept for food and shelter, after the boll had become rotten, while others have been caught in the very act of piercing the bolls; but this subject will be found treated at greater length under the head of "The Boll," and insects found in or upon it, on a preceding page.

While on the subject of the rot, it may be well to mention that, there are three glands on the inside of the outer calyx, at the bottom of the boll, and three on the outside between the "ruffle" and stalk, which secrete and give out a sweet substance, which ants, bees, wasps, and plant-bugs avail themselves of as food. I have seen young bolls, apparently healthy, suddenly drop from the plant, and, on being carefully cut open, showed a wound which had been pierced by the trunk of some insect, in one of these glands, and that a watery rot had commenced where the boll had been stung. It was evident that this rot had been caused by the piercer of some insect unknown, as the puncture could be traced throughout its length to the heart of the lower part of the injured boll.

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## VIRGINIA AND THE CAROLINAS.

J. G. Kohl of the Coast Survey, has lately prepared a volume soon to be published on the Discovery, Explorations, and Hydrography of the United States Coasts. He has made a digest of the work for the National Intelligencer, from which we make some extracts.

### VIRGINIA.

The coast of the country which we now name Virginia is said to have been known to the old Northmen. One of them, Gudlief Gudlaugsen, is said to have sailed in the year 1028 so far to the South. He is supposed to have called the country *Huitramannaland*, the Land of the Whitemen, which may be considered the oldest and first name under which these regions became ever known to the Europeans.

The Spaniards, since 1520, included the land under the names of *Terra de Ayllon* and *Florida*, and the French, since 1563, under the name of *Nouvelle France*. The English invented the name *Virginia* at first (1583) for the country lying

round Pamlico and Albemarle Sound. They composed this name, it is said, for two reasons: first because it was discovered in the reign of their Virgin Queen, Elizabeth; and, secondly, "because the country seemed still to retain the virgin purity and plenty of the first creation, and the people there the primitive innocence."

They extended this name at once over a great part of the east coast, and particularly over the vicinity of Chesapeake bay, which was already discovered from the Roanoke settlements, and which we see included under the name of Virginia on the first map of Virginia, 1590.

When, since 1606, the Chesapeake bay was better explored and settled, and when it became the principal centre of the English settlements on the east coast, *this* region was par excellence called *Virginia*, sometimes *New Virginia*, whilst the former settlements and country round Albemarle Sound, then forsaken, were sometimes (for instance, on a map of Capt. J. Smith) called *Ould Virginia*. This was, however, more a popular manner of denomination. The official or legal name of the country was, in the year 1606, by King James I. thus confined: He called *Virginia*, or *the Virginian territory or coast*, the whole east coast of North America, from the thirty-fourth to the forty-fifth degree of northern latitude. This whole territory was divided by the royal patent into two parts, a northern and a southern. The southern commenced in the south at 34° north latitude and ended in the north at about the 40° north latitude. It was called the *First Colony* or the *Southern Settlements in Virginia*, or *Virginia proper*.

Authors and other private men took however, the liberty to invent other names, according to their own taste, and tried to give them currency. So one author describes, in the year 1609, the territory of our present Virginia under the name of *Nova Britania*. Another (Strachey, in the year 1612) calls it the *Colony in Virginia Britania*, (the Colony in Virginian Britany.) These names, however, remained only in the books.

When Capt. J. Smith and Prince Charles invented and introduced (1616) for northern Virginia the new name of New England, the appellation *Southern Virginia* disappeared, and was changed to *Virginia* simple.

By the separation of the Territories of Maryland, (1632) of Carolana, (1629,) and of Carolina, (1663,) the name and province of Virginia lost a great deal of their former extension, and received at last their present limits, between 38° and 36½° north latitude, so far as our coast is concerned. The changes of the boundaries towards the interior regions have no interest here for us.

## CAROLINA.

When the Spaniards, under Vasquez Ayllon, (1520 and 1526,) arrived on the coasts of what we now call Carolina, and more especially South Carolina, they heard here of a great Indian king and country, both called *Chicora* or *Chicoria*, and they applied that Indian name for some time to this country, without, however, giving to it very distinct limits.

The country was also sometimes called after its discoverer, *Tierra del Licenciado Ayllon*, or, shorter, *Tierra de Ayllon*, often also corrupted to *Terra de Aullon*. Under this name the Spaniards comprehended sometimes a very great part of North America, sometimes not more than our province.

It is curious enough that the French also, when they (1563) arrived at the locality of Ayllon's activity, heard again of an Indian king and country of that name. In their ears it sounded, however, like *Chicola* or *Chiouole*.

After the French navigation to these regions we hear the country sometimes designated by the French themselves with the name *La Floride Françoise*, and other nations also called it *French Florida*. The Spaniards, of course, always considered it as a part of their Spanish Florida.

The French built on their Riviere May (St. Mateo or St. John's river) a fort which they called Fort Caroline or Carolina. Some map-makers and geographers applied this name, as an appellation of a country or territory, to the whole region. So we see, for instance, on a map of North America by Cornelius a Judæis, (1593,) the whole French Florida called *Carolina*, in honor of Charles IX, King of France. It is curious that the same name was afterwards given to the same locality in honor of an English king.

The English, since their settlements at Roanoke, comprehended the whole territory of Carolina under their widely-extended name of Virginia, since 1583. (See our note on the history of that name.)

The country round Albemarle Sound, our present North Carolina, they called sometimes on their maps with the original Indian name *Wigandacoa*, or also *Weapemeoc*, and afterwards sometimes *Ould Virginia*.

To the south of Roanoke and Albemarle Sound the English tried to establish a province or colony for the first time in the year 1629, when Sir Robert Heath, Attorney General to Charles I, obtained from this King a grant of the whole unknown country between 38° north latitude and the river St. Mateo, and when this country was called, in honor of Charles I, *Carolana*.

This grant had, however, very slight consequences. The country was not settled, not taken possession of, not even surveyed or explored.

In the year 1663 Charles II. made another grant of all the lands between the 36th and 37th degrees, north latitude, to Edward Earl of Clarendon, and some other lords and gentlemen, and this tract was again called in his honor *Carolina*; so that we may say we have three kings as godfathers to this province: Charles IX, of France, Charles I, and Charles II, of England.

By a second more ample charter of the 24th of March, 1667, Charles II. extended the boundaries of Carolina from 29° north latitude to 36° 30', and from east to west "until the Pacific Ocean."

The country was divided into two great countries—a northern one, called "*The County of Albemarle*," and a southern one, called "*Clarendon county*."

In this same year (1667) William Sayle, the appointed Governor of Carolina, explored and surveyed the whole coast of the province, entering all the rivers and making astronomical observations. He no doubt also procured a map of the country to be made, but unhappily this map is not preserved for us. Probably the results of this first good survey of the coasts of Carolina were not then made known to the world at large; for we find still, on the edition of Champlain's maps of the year 1677, along the coasts of Carolina this inscription: "*Terre non encore bien decouverte continente a la Florida*," (a land not yet well discovered is connected with Florida.)

In the year 1729 the whole great province was divided into *North* and *South Carolina*, and as the dividing point on the coast was fixed a small inlet to the west of Cape Fear, called Little River Inlet.

In the year 1733 the province of Georgia was detached as a separate government of the old Territory of Carolina, and the southern boundaries of this latter were fixed at the mouth of the Savannah river, and within these boundaries the name of Carolina has been prescribed ever since.

According to what we stated, we may in a certain degree consider the names of *Wingandacoa*, *Weapemeoc*, *Ould Virginia*, *Albemarle County* as old particular designations for North Carolina, and the names of *Chicora*, *Terra de Ayllon*, *Floride Francoise*, *Clarendon County* as particular appellations applied to South Carolina.

#### THE GROWTH OF ST. PAUL AND MINNESOTA.

The growth of St. Paul in population, and in those elements of wealth and prosperity which constitute a flourishing city, has been truly marvellous during the present season.

A greater number of buildings have been erected this year than in any two years preceding.



The increase in population has been very great. Our city at the present time, we firmly believe, contains a population of twelve thousand souls. In 1849 it did not contain five hundred inhabitants.

During the present summer, eastern capital amounting to hundreds of thousands of dollars, has been profitably and judiciously expended. Large and elegant warehouses, stores, and dwellings have been erected by hundreds.

Labor of all kinds has been in demand throughout the season. Mechanics and day-laborers have commanded what would seem to the same class of population in the East, enormous wages.

I presume there is no city in this country—I might say in the world, perhaps—that has increased more in the same space of time, in everything pertaining to substantial growth and prosperity, than has St. Paul the present season.

The emigration to the Territory has been steady and increasing the whole season; so great, indeed, has been the increase, that our people are beginning now seriously to entertain the idea of applying for *admission into the Union as a State*, our population numbering now, it is thought, *nearly two hundred thousand souls*.

A word or two in regard to investments and loans, as all business men particularly desire to be posted on these subjects.

I will briefly enumerate one or two modes in which, in my opinion, money can be invested in this direction to great advantage. In the first place, then, city property—in other words, property in or round St. Paul—I regard as the safest and most judicious investment that can be made. It may not prove so immediately and enormously profitable perhaps as some new points, or even as wild land, (including under that head all land subject to entry, and not under cultivation;) but in these cases there is more or less risk, while investments in property here I regard as sound and safe to the fullest extent. I have known of instances this season of property in towns outside and the land adjoining advancing in a few months, since April last, in fact, at the rate of fourteen or fifteen hundred per cent., and some a great deal more; property in "Bay-field," for instance, a city on lake Superior, Wisconsin, started in April last, said to possess the finest harbor on the whole lake, having also a grant of land for railroad purposes, made them by Congress as part of the Wisconsin grant, with Bay-field as the terminus of the road, and likely to be a very large city. Land has sold as high as \$1,000 and \$2,000 per acre; and property just outside adjoining the city limits at over four hundred an acre. This is a striking instance of the rapid rise of property sometimes in the West, and in this in-

stance the investment I regard as a safe one, because, in all human probability, Bayfield is sure to make a very considerable point. The enterprise is headed by men of position and influence, of untiring energy, and abundant means, and must prove successful. At the head of the list stands our present delegate in Congress, Hon. Henry M. Rice, a western pioneer, a man of great shrewdness and foresight, in building cities particularly, and one whose judgment, since I have known anything of him, has never yet failed in a solitary instance; he has done more to build up St. Paul than any other man in the Territory. He has been instrumental also in starting Superior, (a city situated at the head of lake Superior,) likely to become in time a very considerable point.

\* \* \* \* \*

The company are making improvements there of various kinds, building piers, hotels, &c., and have erected a steam-saw mill, now in operation, costing from \$10,000 to \$15,000. The town is progressing finely, and with the fund reserved by the company for improvements, must decidedly rank with Superior, St. Paul, and other young and vigorous cities of this rapidly growing region of country. A wagon-road from Bayfield to St. Paul has been completed and in use for two or three months, over which a post-route has already been established. In view of the early development of this point, many prominent parties have made desirable locations in the immediate neighborhood, among whom may be mentioned Hon. Mr. Aiken, late representative from South Carolina, Hon. Jesse D. Bright, Hon. John C. Breckinridge, Hon. Hiram Walbridge, and others.

#### THE SUEZ CANAL—ITS EFFECTS ON COMMERCE.

To cut through the Isthmus of Suez or Panama, would be to open shorter and less dangerous routes for the navigator, to reduce the expense of trade, and to extend commerce by facilitating it; to increase the welfare and riches of all; to bring nations together, and thus to contribute the greatness of one to the civilization of another. Such is one of the undertakings reserved for the second half of this century, already so remarkable—an era which this great work alone would render celebrated.

Of the two projected canals, that of America and that of Suez, the importance is very different. The canal of Suez would unite India and Europe. It would re-establish the commerce and prosperity, the peace and advancement of Europe, Asia, and even Africa; in a word, of the whole of this hemisphere, the continental superficies of which, com-

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pared with that of the opposite, being in the proportion of 23 to 11. To Mr. Ferdinand de Lesseps, was reserved the honor of attaching his name to this great enterprise, authorized and patronised by the Viceroy of Egypt, Mahommed Said.

If we compare the mean distances between the ports of Europe and India, by the Cape of Good Hope, on the one hand, and by the intended channel between the two seas on the other, we shall find an enormous difference in favor of this latter route. This difference will be still greater if we remember that a straight line on the chart of navigation is far from being the shortest distances from one port to another, and the seaman can only reach the point for which he is steering by following a certain number of successive courses, approaching as near as possible the arc of a great circle. Thus, far from making directly for the Cape of Good Hope, vessels leaving Europe or the Atlantic ports of North America, en route for India, must steer for the Canaries or Azores in order to find the trade winds of the Northern hemisphere, to make the coast of Brazil and sight Cape Frio, or put into harbor at Rio Janeiro. This is generally the route for the Cape of Good Hope, more justly, perhaps, called the Cape of Storms. They then cross the Aguilhas bank, reach Bourbon or Mauritius, and from thence steer for India, following the routes allowed by the monsoons. Vessels in the Mediterranean again have to contend with still greater disadvantages. It often takes them fifteen days to reach the Straits of Gibraltar, westerly winds generally prevailing in this quarter, where we also find a rapid flow of the ocean waters into the Mediterranean. Thus the voyages to India take at least five months or five months and a half, the voyages home being rather more direct, without being sensibly shorter. Ships can then run nearer to the African shore by reason of the trade-winds of the Southern hemisphere, the place of call in this case being St. Helena.

I have myself taken both these routes about ten years since. If we now examine the facilities for navigation in the three seas near the canal of Suez, namely, the Mediterranean, the Red Sea, and the Gulf of Oman, we find—

That in the Mediterranean the winds blow from the north during the greater part of the year, change to S. E. in the spring, and return to the north, passing by the W. and N. W.

That nearly the same takes place in the Red Sea, where the north, which is the prevailing wind, heaps the waters in the direction of Babel Mandel, so that during a calm we observe a current setting northward, evidently arising from the elevated waters in the south endeavoring to recover their level. Southerly winds generally succeed a calm.

The Gulf of Oman has two monsoons—the N. E. monsoon, which generally continues during the winter, and the S. W. monsoon, which lasts during the summer, and is frequently stormy. The change from one monsoon to the other is there, as elsewhere, accompanied by a series of storms and gales.

It appears to me from the foregoing that it would be advantageous for vessels to proceed to India (by the canal) during the autumn, and to return by it in the spring.

The considerable reduction of the distance of European ports from those of India would not be the only advantage to trade from adopting the canal between the two seas; for not only would vessels reach their point of destination much sooner, but they would find places of anchorage throughout the entire route, and also, what is of more importance still, they would meet with good markets. The navigator, after having followed the usual easy routes of the Mediterranean, would dispose of part of his cargo in the canal of Suez or at Djedda, would purchase ivory at Massarva, Souaken, or Derbera, which he would exchange in India for opium, to take to China in exchange for silk and tea. He would complete his home cargo in colonial merchandise from Manilla, the Isles of Sunda, and Ceylon, in cotton of India or Egypt, in coffee of Abyssinia or Yemen, the gum of Soudon or Hedjaz, the corn of lower Egypt, or rice of Damietta; and these numerous operations, which now require years, would be accomplished rapidly and without danger with small capital and small vessels. In short, by reducing the time necessary for the operations of commerce we reduce the general expense. We make a greater number of these changes feasible in a given time, and facilitate them to small traders, who are by far the most numerous. By affording an easier and surer route to navigation, we find it may be accomplished by vessels of small tonnage, provided with bills of exchange; in short, it opens the route to India to coasting vessels, and renders commerce and navigation general. Turkey, Russia, Austria, Italy, and southern Spain might then fit out vessels for India, and these Powers would find their maritime resources increase in immense proportion. Marseilles would become more important, and the ports on the ocean, Cadiz, Lisbon, Havre, Rotterdam, Hamburg, would increase their shipping, like England suddenly brought near its powerful colony, like Spain and Holland with respect to Manilla and Batavia; in short, the increase of trade competition on the one hand, and the vast diminution of expense on the other, would doubtless tend to lessen the rates of exchange. The produce of Asia would abound in our markets; the Asiatic markets would, in their turn, be rich in ours; and the general good would be the necessary result.



All nations would take advantage of the importance of the trade with India, China, and the islands of the ocean. Trade with the Red Sea, although less considerable, deserves attention; but, as there is scarcely any carried on at present, it is very little known, and could only acquire importance by the opening of a canal between the two seas. The Red Sea, which is so near to us in a straight line, becomes far distant when we have to double the Cape. Babel Mandel is as far from us as Pondicherry, and Souaken as far as Batavia; Suez, further still by this route, becomes as near as Beyrout by the canal; in short, the two routes measured from the Straits of Gibraltar to Souaken are in the proportion of one to five.

Very few European vessels are now met with in the Red Sea. Every year we see a few belonging to the Parsees of Bombay, and manned by Lascars. The internal trade of this sea is now carried on by Arabian barques, called *dows* or *boutres*, constructed at Suez, Djedda, Kossair, Souaken, or Mocha, with wood from India to Singapore. These vessels are of a very small tonnage, are very sharp, and have a handsome sheer; a heavy poop, which hinders their working, and lowers it at the stern; they carry one mast, rigging a square sail; this sail and its yard are struck to the foot of the mast when they lay to; about thirty men are required to hoist it again, and this operation cannot be performed in less than half an hour. The tacking of these ships is as difficult as it is dangerous. The dows only sail in the day time; they get under way about seven o'clock in the morning, sail till about four in sight of the coast, then anchor by a grappling iron, or run aground on the sand.

When they have to cross the Red Sea, the Arabs take the precaution of sailing from a port to the windward of the one they are steering for, on the opposite coast; the voyage occupies sixty hours, and is always a time of great anxiety to the masters of these vessels. These masters, called *nakhouda*, (from a Persian word,) pretend to take observations with astrolabes of great antiquity, although this pretension does not appear to me to be proved. I must add that we rarely find a compass on board these dows. The classic compass of the Arabs only consists of a needle, more or less magnetic, resting on a cork, which floats in some water, and hence we need not be astonished that one fifth of the dows are lost every year.

The sailing of the dows is by no means good. I have myself passed forty-five days in two of these vessels; namely, fifteen days in going from Souaken to Djedda, (about sixty nautical leagues,) and thirty days in going from Djedda to Kossair, (scarcely one hundred and thirty nautical leagues.) It is true that the wind was against us; and one-half of this

time was employed in beating to windward, sometimes still less. There is a great difference between these dows and our vessels. Thus we may suppose that the introduction of European vessels into the Red Sea by the canal of Suez would cause a complete revolution even in the internal commerce of this sea.

### THE NATIONAL EXPENDITURE, 1856.

Compensation and mileage of Senators.....	\$108,872
Compensation and mileage of Representatives and Delegates.....	365,048
Additional, allowed under increased compensation.....	773,500
Compensation of officers and employees of Senate.....	69,484
Contingent expenses of the Senate.....	168,460
Compensation of officers and employees of House of Representatives	76,646
Contingent expenses of House of Representatives, viz:	
Binding Documents.....	\$125,000
Furniture, repairs, and stationery.....	15,000
Horses, carriages, fuel, and lights.....	6,900
Newspapers for members.....	12,500
Engraving and lithographing.....	125,000
Police and miscellaneous items.....	40,700
Pages, laborers, folders, &c.....	26,632
For Congressional Globe and appendix.....	34,704
Binding same.....	16,657
Reporting debates, first session.....	21,000
	424,183
For Library Congress and Superintendent of Printing.....	30,750
Paper required for Printing during second session.....	156,408
Printing for the second session, Thirty-Fourth Congress.....	115,000
Compensation of the President of the United States.....	25,000
Compensation of the Vice President—balance.....	2,622
Compensation of Secretary to sign patents.....	1,500
Compensation of Secretary of State and employees.....	51,000
Publishing the laws of Congress.....	47,301
Contingent expenses of State Department.....	34,500
Compensation of the Secretary of the Treasury, assistants and employees.....	615,340
Contingent expenses of Treasury Department.....	78,409
Compensation of the Secretary of the Interior, commissioners and employees.....	314,390
Contingent expenses of Interior Department.....	133,230
Surveyors of Public Lands and their clerks.....	130,151
Compensation of the Secretary of War, clerks and employees.....	106,300
Contingent expense of the War Department.....	29,160
Compensation of the Secretary of the Navy, clerks and employees.....	97,540
Contingent expenses of the Navy Department.....	12,565
Compensation of the Postmaster-General, clerks and employees.....	158,840
Contingent expenses of Post Office Department.....	159,000
Expenses of Mint at Philadelphia.....	177,200
Expenses of Mint at New Orleans.....	63,200
Expenses of Mint at Charlotte, North Carolina.....	11,600
Expenses of Mint at Dahlonega, Georgia.....	10,880
Expenses of Mint at San Francisco.....	277,300
Expenses of Mint at New York Assay Office.....	62,200
For Territorial Government—Oregon.....	34,000
For Territorial Government—Minnesota.....	30,300

# APPROPRIATIONS BY CONGRESS.

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For Territorial Government—New Mexico.....	34,000
For Territorial Government—Utah.....	33,000
For Territorial Government—Washington.....	34,000
For Territorial Government—Nebraska.....	31,500
For Territorial Government—Kansas.....	32,000
Compensation of Supreme Court and District Judges.....	167,000
Compensation of Attorney General and District Attorneys.....	54,000
Support of the Court of Claims.....	30,000
Support of the Independent Treasury.....	161,000
Support of the present land system.....	253,000
Support of the District Penitentiary.....	23,816
For defraying the expenses of the United States Courts.....	800,000
Contingent expenses of Surveyors General.....	17,000
Contingent expenses of Public Grounds in Washington.....	41,226
For the support of the Army—	
Army proper.....	10,568,249
Armories, Arsenal, and Munitions of War.....	985,049
Military Academy.....	173,891
Fortifications and other works of defence.....	1,746,400
Surveys, &c.....	135,000
Miscellaneous objects.....	1,400,000
Arrearages.....	2,000
For the support of the Navy—	
Navy proper.....	8,142,418
Marine corps.....	851,113
Special objects.....	4,530,974
Surveys of the Atlantic and Gulf Coasts.....	250,000
Survey of the Western Coasts of the United States.....	130,000
Support of the Light House establishment.....	1,300,959
To supply a deficiency in Post Office Department.....	2,250,000
Intercourse with foreign nations.....	938,862
For the payment of pensions.....	1,458,947
For lighting the President's house and public grounds.....	27,000
Continuation of public buildings in Washington.....	450,000
For Indian annuities.....	1,385,276
To collect agricultural seeds and statistics.....	75,000
For the payment of certain per centage to States.....	256,000
Repayment for land erroneously sold.....	63,000
Marine Hospital fund.....	150,000
For the payment of debentures, drawbacks, and bounties.....	500,000
Repayment to importers the excess of duties collected.....	1,050,000
Expenses of collecting revenue from customs.....	2,450,000
Expenses of Smithsonian Institute.....	30,910
Expenses of mail transportation for the several departments.....	200,000
Expenses of mail transportation for the two Houses of Congress.....	500,000
For arming and equipping the militia.....	200,000
For civilising Indians under the act of March 3, 1849.....	10,000
For interest on the public debt.....	2,230,000
For ocean mail steamer service.....	2,113,500
For general mail transportations.....	6,140,000
Compensation of postmasters.....	2,150,000
For ship, steamboat, and way letters.....	30,000
Compensation of clerks in post offices, and contingencies.....	1,329,300
For Capitol extensions until 4th March next.....	750,000
For new dome on Capitol.....	100,000
Total .....	\$63,604,023

The bounty land act of this session will dispose of millions of acres, but the head of the Pension Bureau can give no idea of the probable quantity.

## EDUCATION AT THE SOUTH.

*To C. K. Marshall, Vicksburg, Mississippi, Chairman of the Committee on Home Education appointed by the Southern Commercial Convention:*

I have received a copy of your circular sent me, published in De Bow's Review, with much pleasure, and am proud to be recognized as a co-laborer with you in the great work to which you are so steadfastly devoting your talents and energies. The important ends you propose are what I have been toiling for years with pen and tongue to promote; and the best remuneration I can seek for, whatever pecuniary sacrifices I have been called upon to make in the cause of Southern Literature, will be the ultimate and thorough triumph of your present undertaking.

I think the time is at hand, or not very remote, when the people of the South must necessarily be fully aroused to a sense of their fearful responsibility in this vital matter.

It is not from ignorance of the true extent of the evil we seek to combat, that the unpardonable apathy which has hitherto existed on the subject of the education of our Southern youth is to be traced. We and others who have engaged in the war against Abolition teachers and Anti-Slavery Text Books, have striven hard to induce parents and guardians and teachers to be convinced of and admit the existence of the evil, and to apply the proper remedy. We have not indulged in mere abstractions, or remained content with broad assertions and general principles. We have laid the axe to the root of the tree, and shown where the poison lies that has marred its growth and is consuming its life blood. We have advanced the proposition repeatedly, that our schools have been and are still more or less deluged with Abolition Text Books, in many cases illustrated and endorsed by Abolition teachers. We have gone farther, and demonstrated the fact beyond the shadow of a doubt, by giving, page for page, and word for word, innumerable extracts from the most popular and widely circulated of our school books, breathing the most rampant hostility to our institutions, and conveying the most unjust and invidious comparisons, to the prejudice of the South as lessons to be learned and gloried in by Southern boys and girls! Notwithstanding all that has been said and written, we are still journeying on in "the old paths," giving support and countenance to our worst enemies, while our friends at home are left to suggest, propose, and sometimes institute reforms in education for our own benefit and safety, at great personal and pecuniary sacrifice. Is it not a notorious fact, that every Southern author, editor, or compiler, who has had the temerity



to try the experiment on his own hook, of appealing to that dernier resort, "Southern patronage," has been compelled to pay the piper for his patriotism, instead of being paid for his industry. Have "Simms' Geography and History of South Carolina," "Mason's Southern First Class Book," or "Adams' Moral Philosophy," made money for their authors and been received as standered text books?

How different has been the fate of Northern authors. Peter Parley the history, and Mitchell the geography man, the former of whom has eagerly seized upon every opportunity, in his works for the instruction of Southern youth, to insult and misrepresent the institutions of the South, and the latter to ignore the existance of any which might be supposed to reflect credit upon the literary or industrial enterprise of her people, have made large fortunes by the publication of their Anti-Slavery School Books! Professor Anthon, to whom we are willing to award all the praise justly due for his admirable series of classics, is said to have realized something like \$60,000 as the fruit of his labors. Webster's Dictionary has run a career of prosperity to the tune of some \$200,000, as a harvest for its proprietors. The authors and publishers of the "United States Speaker," "National Orator," "English Reader," "Columbian Orator," and some scores of District School Readers, Courses of Reading, &c., emanating from New England, all of which have been in use in our schools from time immemorial, and from the pages of which several generation of school boys have imbibed all the sickly sentimentality that has ever existed among us in past times on the subject of "the abstract evils of slavery," have all reaped stores of golden grain for those concerned in originating and circulating them.

In the lighter departments of literature, our Northern neighbors of the quill and the press have been equally fortunate. Headley's Biographies of our Southern generals and heros; Ike Marvel's reveries and vagaries of his bachelor leisure hours; Miss Leslie's fugitive romances, and hosts of others of similar calibre, have been better compensated for the time and labor consumed in thier production, than all the writings of our Southern authors put together, in a long series of years of unrequited toil. Fanny Fern, we are told, made six thousand dollars in six months from one small book of sentimental reflections over the cradle of a small baby, and one or two other kindred topics, upon which scores of our fair literary Southrons have descanted time after time, without any promise or prospect of compensation. And to cap the climax of this unequal and unjust balance of the scales of genius and merit in the two sections of the Union, Mrs. Uncle Tom Beecher Stowe, has eclipsed the whole of them in the furor, as well as the filthy lucre, she

has succeeded in raising for her scandalous book of falsehoods, to which the people of the South generously contributed, for the gratification of reading their own vilification and sentence of condemnation. In the review and magazine department, how generously we continue to patronize Harper and Blackwood, Godey and Graham, and the quarterlies of the North—while the Southern Quarterly is in the very act of breathing its last gasp, and De Bow's monthly, propelled forward only by the aid of its intrinsic merit, and a few unshaken friends and patrons, is from time to time reduced to the necessity of an appeal for even its just dues!

Where is the newspaper South, whose circulation in a week will begin to compare with that of the political weather-cock of the New York Herald in a day—a sheet, which but for its small spark of gratitude still left for the favor and patronage it has received from us, would be now our bitterest enemy as it has been hitherto our most interested friend!

If it is important for us to have a home literature of our own, in the lighter departments of reading and knowledge, how much more vitally essential is it to our best interests that the books from which our children imbibe their earliest lessons in history and political economy should be written by those who are able to expound and vindicate, instead of misrepresenting and defaming the institutions under which they are to live and be educated.

I am truly rejoiced to see that in your circular you advocate the use of *school books, edited, printed, and published at home*, and the intervention of Legislative pecuniary aid in their preparation and circulation. I advocate this important measure, for two strong reasons. First, because a large portion of the text books now in use are *unsuitable* and dangerous to Southern youth, and ought to be dispensed with. And secondly, because we are fully capable of producing books at home at least equally well written and edited, *decidedly superior* in point of typographical execution, and vastly more congenial with and adapted to our own latitude. And in view of the lamentable fact that the only obstacle to the success of Southern authorship is the almost total absence of capital invested in the publishing business, the Legislative aid you propose appears to be the only resort left us by which the object can be accomplished.

The Southern Commercial Convention should make this a favorite measure, and act vigorously upon it at the approaching session in Savannah. Now, more than ever, every Southern man should feel that an important crisis in our career is impending, when the management and control of our literary institutions and resources, in close connection as they are with

our political, should be confided wholly and exclusively to the care and judgment of those *who are with us and of us*, and in whom we have a right to feel confidence.

I alluded in general terms to the dangerous tendency of the anti-slavery text books, from time immemorial, and still in use in our schools, and your earnest advocacy of the measures now on foot for seeking Legislative aid in behalf of the circulation of books, edited and published on our own soil, by native authors. Lest I should seem to have been guilty of a *petitio principii*, in making vague assertions and dealing in generalities, without sufficient reason, I will give a few illustrations of the anti-slavery character of several of our most popular Oratory Reading Books, and wind up by urging the subject once more upon the consideration of parents and teachers.

Whelpley's Compend. of History, chap. 12, page 158; thus eloquently argues the question of Southern slavery:

"But for what purpose was he brought from his country? Why was he forced from the scenes of his youth, and from the cool retreats of his native mountains? Was it, that he might witness the saving knowledge of the gospel? That he might become a Christian? Did they desire to open his prospects into a future life? to inform his clouded soul of immortal joys; and aid him in his pilgrimage to heaven? No. He was deprived of *freedom*, the dearest pledge of his existence. *His mind was not cultivated and improved by science!* He was placed among those who hate and despise his nation; who undervalue him, even for that of which he is innocent, and which he could not possibly avoid! *He is detested for his complexion, and ranked among the brutes for his stupidity.* His laborious exertions are extorted from him to enrich his purchasers, and *his scanty allowance is furnished, only that he may endure his sufferings for their aggrandizement!* Where are the incentives that may induce him to become a Christian? Alas! *they are crushed beneath a mountain of desperate and hopeless grief; his views of happiness are depressed, so that he must almost doubt of his natural claim to humanity.*"

"Had he religion think you he could pray!  
Ah no! he steals him to his lonely shed,  
What time moist midnight blows her venom'd breath;  
And musing how he long has toiled and bled,  
Seeks shelter only in the arms of death!"

Now for the still more affecting *Peroration*.:

"Hapless children of men! When shall light and order pervade the *cheerless regions where you dwell?* What power shall heave the *adamantine bars which secure the gates of your dungeon*, and bring you forth? When shall the cherub hope smile on you from heaven, and, with a compassionate voice,

call you to the pleasures of reason? to the delights of immortality? In the natural course of events *your destiny seems hopeless*; no force of words can suitably describe or deplore your case; and your only hope of relief is in Omnipotence. Your deliverer must be a being of Almighty power, wisdom and goodness. To that being then, let me command you—to his favor—to his grace—to his everlasting mercy."

From the *National Orator*, page 49, I extract the following on "The irresistible genius of Universal Emancipation," from a speech of the illustrious Curran, giving a trans-Atlantic view of the question:

"I speak in the spirit of the British law, which makes liberty commensurate with, and inseparable from, the British soil—which proclaims, even to the stranger and the sojourner, the moment he sets his foot upon British earth, *that the ground on which he treads is holy*, and consecrated by the *genius of Universal Emancipation*. No matter in what language his doom may have been pronounced; *no matter what complexion incompatible with freedom, an Indian or an African sun may have burnt upon him*; no matter in what disastrous battle his liberty may have been cloven down; no matter with what solemnities he may have been devoted upon the altar of slavery; the first moment he touches the sacred soil of Britain, the altar and the god sink together in the dust; his soul walks abroad in her own majesty; his body swells beyond the measure of his chains, that burst from around him, and he stands redeemed, regenerated, and disenthralled, by the *irresistible genius of Universal Emancipation*."

The same book, page 82, contains the celebrated "Ode to New England," by Percival. Very few Carolina school-boys of the present day would be willing to endorse in full this generous sentiment of the poet:

*'There is no other land like thee, I*

*No dearer shore;*

*Thou art the shelter of the free;*

*The home, the port of Liberty,*

*Thou hast been and shall ever be,*

*Till time is o'er.*

*Ere I forget to think upon*

*My land, shall mother curse the son*

*She bore.*

*Thou art the firm unshaken rock,*

*On which we rest;*

*And, rising from thy hardy stock,*

*Thy sons the tyrant's frown shall mock,*

*And Slavery's galling chains unlock,*

*And free the oppressed;*

*All, who the wreath of Freedom twine,*

*Beneath the shadow of their vine*

*Are blest."*



I could, if it were at all necessary, fill column upon column with hundreds of similar extracts; but these will suffice simply to show the nature of the teachings to which I have referred, and *the absurdity of such books being so long tolerated and encouraged in our schools?* Most of them are amenable to the charge of *inculcating improper precepts in the minds of our children on the subject of slavery*; or, if their authors have, from motives of policy, avoided the topic, they are filled with the most insulting comparisons between the North and South—all aiming to show *the superiority of the former in point of education, literature, morals, religion, and industry!* We want books now to show up the other side of the picture, and to demonstrate to the satisfaction of the young minds, hitherto misled by sophistry and declamation into erroneous views of the comparative merits and importance of the greatly wronged South, *that the boot has been put on the wrong leg.*

I bid you, then Godspeed, dear sir, in the patriotic undertaking in which you are engaged, and feel confident that with the zeal and ability which you will bring to bear upon the subject, backed by the endorsement of the dignified and respectable body with which you have the honor of being associated, something may yet be done to free our beloved South from the stigma of literary and industrial dependence upon her worst enemies. When your proposed scheme of Legislative aid shall have been more fully developed and discussed before the Convention, there are many warm hearts and willing hands, as well as active intellects, in this section of the South who will be ready to co-operate vigorously and faithfully with you in all such urgently needed, and, I believe, eminently practicable measures of reform.

If you have convenient access to a copy of Kirkham's *Elocution*, you may have an opportunity of indulging in the pastime of letting your "heart bleed" with that of the author of a very thrilling, imaginary picture of the sorrows of "one of the millions of your fellow creatures, born to no inheritance but slavery." It purports to be a "dream," and, like most dreams, solemnly believed to be true by the dreamer for some time before recovering from the stupor produced by it. You will find the dream recorded on page 161, chapter 2.

Webster's *Dictionary*, University edition, New York, 1846, page 373, thus defines the term "*slave*."

"A person *subject to the will of another*, a drudge!"

Whenever I see a low white man, who never owned a negro in his life, imposing upon his neighbor's servant, and attempting, by violence, to make him "subject to his will," it always occurs to me that he has caught the idea from old Noah, exclusively, as the laws of the land, when they do get hold of such a scamp, often teach him a very different lesson for his

brutality. At least nine-tenths of the cruelties to slaves, of which the people of the South are wrongfully accused, are practised by a set of unfeeling scoundrels identified neither by birth nor interest with us, who probably never will have the means of owning a slave, unless by making him "subject to their will," and clandestinely decoying him from his rightful owner, under the pretext of making him free.

In Woodbridge & Willard's *Geography* you will find the following flattering comparisons between New England and the Southern States, which I would commend to your particular study.

Pages 233-4.—Agriculture:—

"Massachusetts is considered the best cultivated State in the Union, except Pennsylvania, and much advance has been made by means of Agricultural Societies, and the premiums offered by them.

"In all the States lying south of Pennsylvania, the land is tilled almost entirely by slaves. In consequence of this, agriculture is much more imperfect than in the Northern States."

N. B.—Conclusion from the above.

"No Agricultural Societies or premiums south of Pennsylvania."

Pages 209-10.—Education.

"New England is more amply supplied with colleges than other parts of the Union, and receives a great number of students from other States.

"The Southern States are not so well provided with literary institutions, and a large number of their youth are educated in the Northern States!"

The latter statement satisfactorily explains the former. By reversing the positions of the antecedent and consequent, the conclusion derived is this, viz: That New England receives a great number of students from other States, which enables her to support an ample supply of colleges, and that the Southern States send a large number of their youth to feed Northern colleges, leaving their own to go by the board!

Page 203.—Same.

"The Eastern or New England States are peculiarly favored with the means of instruction. It is rare to meet with a native of these States who cannot read and write."

"In the Southern States, the people generally live on extensive plantations, or in settlements spread over a large tract, so that it is difficult for a sufficient number to unite for the establishment of institutions for literary and religious instruction. On this account the means of instruction are not easily procured, except by the rich."

Wonder what has become of the annual appropriation of \$74,400 by this State, for the support of Free Schools, and how

many rich men's children patronize the mammoth school house, with Northern teachers, recently erected in Charleston! Will the next edition of the Geography enlighten us on this point?

Mrs. Willard, you are aware, is the Principal of the Troy Female Seminary, New York, educates annually a large number of Southern young ladies, who go North under the impression that the education they obtain here is not sufficiently national, and sends on the Geography South for the special instruction of those who are too poor to travel for their education, or too proud to depend upon Northern Schools for it.

In Mandeville's "Course of Reading for Common Schools," published in New York, 1850, you will find on page 225 an eloquent essay, entitled "The Existence of Slavery inconsistent with our principles and institutions."

Goodrich's (Peter Parley) Pictorial History of the United States, page 220, will entertain you with an instructive chapter on "Slavery in the United States;" and if you were a nullifier in old times, or a secessionist in 1851, you will be highly amused with an interesting account at page 321, of the same popular school book, of the nullification and rebellion movement in the refractory little State of which I have the honor of being a native.

There is but one inference to be drawn from all these extracts to which I have called your attention, viz: the absolute and degrading inferiority of the South, to the North generally, and New England especially, in every thing that appertains to a high standard of literature, education, religion, morals, enterprise, and industrial progress.

When we begin to write and publish our own school books, I hope we will be able to show that she has either improved vastly in all these respects, since the books from which I quote were published, or that the authors were guilty of great indiscretion in undertaking to give information without knowing what they were writing about.

There can be no want of material, intellect, or mechanical facilities for getting up such a series of Text Books as we need from our own resources. We have here in our own State ample provision for each. Such men as Thornwell, Bachman, Holbrook, Gibbes, Holmes, Simms, Carroll, and a host of others, who have already proved themselves by their published works, will form an array of gifted collaborators in such an undertaking, as may at once abundantly supply all the wants of the schools, with an able series of works in every department of the Classics, Belles Lettres, and Moral and Natural Science.\*

\* Professor Rivers, of the South Carolina College, a distinguished graduate of that excellent institution and native of this city, has now in preparation for the press, a history of South Carolina, which is spoken of in terms of high com-

And we have ladies too, among us, who have written, and may again write school-books; and who can discourse as eloquent music, if necessary, over "Infancy Asleep," or "Death in the Cradle," as the most matronly disciple or imitator of the Sigourney School of Poetry any where, even though they don't coin money by it.

With the requisite material and intellectual ability to mould it into form, we have also every facility for publishing, except extensive capital. In this we are deficient, and as a remedy, you propose to seek the aid of the State Legislatures. How is this to be accomplished?

A league composed of all or any number of States would be too unwieldy and attended with innumerable difficulties, even if practicable. Let each State, in her sovereign capacity, make her own separate annual appropriation and confine it strictly to the benefit of her own citizens. The competition, thus restricted, would not be inconveniently extensive, and each State can then compensate all, more or less, who engage in the work with acceptance and credit to themselves. In each of the various departments of scholastic effort there might be four, and probably in some branches not more than two competitors for premiums. Let the State establish a Bureau of Education, with a Superintendent, at a moderate salary. He should be a scholar of enlarged views of general literature, and withal, a teacher of practical experience. This officer should be required to make an annual report to the Legislature, in which he may be instructed to designate such branches of study as may from time to time need to be illustrated by new text books.

He should also be required to superintend and disburse the appropriations, under the advice and direction of a Committee on Education, appointed by the Legislature for this special purpose. The establishment of a general wholesale Book Depository at the Seat of Government would be the next desideratum. The accepted manuscripts being chosen by a disinterested committee of literary gentlemen, appointed by the Legislature, are sent here for publication. The State has now become not only the purchased proprietor and publisher of the book, but also our chief customer! The Free School appropriation, now applied to the purchase of Northern books, will, by itself, square off the first edition, and open a wider field for future circulation. The private schools next adopt it as a text book, and the new volume is recognised as a standard work.

commendation by the gifted scholars to whom the manuscript has been submitted. Simms' History of South Carolina, and Carroll's Historical Collections of the same State, are works of industrious research and sterling merit. Professors Holbrook, Gibbs, Bachman, and Holmes, have each aided in producing valuable works and treatises on science.



The author or compiler is paid for his head-work, the printer and binder for their handiwork. The State pays herself back out of her old appropriation for education, and thus on the basis of a comparatively small floating capital, conducts an extensive publishing business, with no risk or possibility of failure and with satisfaction and profit to all concerned. Talent and industry are thus developed and rewarded under the fostering care of the State, and this, too, with but little additional expenditure of money.

If the State can give liberally to Industrial Institutes, towards the erection of elegant Halls for the exhibition of the genius and enterprise of her sons in the mechanic arts, why should she hesitate to award the small appropriation that would thus be needed for the expenses of a bureau of education, which may develop and remunerate both the mental and manual labor in other and equally useful departments of industry?

With these crude suggestions, I now leave the subject in good hands, with the confident assurance that you will leave no stone unturned to carry out to its successful accomplishment, a project which, if ever successful, will crown your name and reputation with lasting honor.

I remain, dear sir, very truly yours,

A SOUTH CAROLINIAN.

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#### SOUTHERN ITEMS, ETC.

The South Carolina Agricultural Society have had during November a very splendid Fair at Columbia, S. C. The officers elected for the next year are—

*President*—Col. A. P. Calhoun.

*Vice Presidents*—Thomas P. Byrd, George Seaborn, Thomas E. Powe, R. S. Porcher, Jacob Stroman, N. A. Peay.

*Executive Committee*—J. U. Adams, E. G. Palmer, R. J. Gage, J. Foster Marshall, Dr. R. Harlee, Wm. Gregg.

The annual Fair of the Chatham Agricultural Club took place at Savannah, during November, and was largely attended.

The Virginia State Fair was held at Richmond, and the Dispatch says:

"We believe it is now conceded that there are as many people attending the present exhibition as have attended either of the two preceding. Nor is the exhibition as a whole inferior to its predecessors. There may be some inferiority in some departments, but we doubt it; while in others the show is greatly superior. The array of cattle is the finest yet drawn to the fair

grounds by the annual meeting, and the number of horses exceeds all precedent. The exhibition of quick draft horses was particularly fine both as to number and speed. There was, too, a vast amount of agricultural machinery upon the ground."

An extensive Cotton Factory has been established in northwestern Louisiana, and Messrs. Green propose immediately another at Jackson, Mississippi. The Cotton Factory at Mobile is said to be very flourishing. The investment amounts to \$150,000, and 180 hands are employed. It is also proposed to establish a Paper Mill in that city, the former failure being considered accidental.

*Students in colleges.*—The number of students in the three first colleges in the country is—in Harvard, 697; Yale, 604; in the University of Virginia, 540. In the latter there is an increase of 80 over the number last year. At Yale there are 57 students from Southern States.

Hereafter we shall obtain the Cata-

logues and publish the lists of Southern students at Northern colleges, and Northern students at Southern ones. It is time to have accurate statistics upon this subject.

John Murphy & Co., of Baltimore, have now established a large publication house, and intend going largely into the business of publishing books adapted to the wants of the Southern people. We commend them to all of our friends throughout the South. See their advertisement in another place, and send them your orders.

The Southern Commercial Convention at Savannah, 8th of December, will, we think, be largely attended. The States and cities are now appointing delegates. Let all attend who can. The South requires such services. The full particulars of its action will appear in our January number. The New Orleans Delta says:

"Events have moved with seven-leagued boots since the Memphis commencement; they have outstripped our conventions, and anticipated the reports of the committees; they have convulsed the South to its centre, and thought has grown as quickly as artificial flowers in a conservatory. The pioneers of the Southern movement have to travel fast, or the rank and file will tread upon their ankles. The South has come up to the position of CALHOUN at last; in other words, it has leaped a century ahead, and the difficulty with our publicists and politicians henceforward will be, not to wait for the outward pressure of the people, but 'to keep step to the music,' and secure their places in the ranks."

We call the attention of our readers to a tract of land advertised in the present number, which is admirably adapted for the location of a large commercial community. The land was originally purchased by a company who designed laying out and building a city along the banks of the Elizabeth river. Some of the company failing to meet their portion of the liabilities, it became the property of the present owner, who, from ill health and somewhat advanced age, is indisposed to undertake the great labor which must necessarily devolve upon any one individual who attempts to carry out the original project.

A glance at the map will satisfy observers that the ground was wisely chosen for the end in view, and that

few portions of our favored land offers greater advantages for town sites than the one in question. An active, bustling community settled at this point, would speedily become independent of Northern and Eastern ports, for its own harbor would be the best in the world, and its geographical position would at once divert a large portion, if not the whole of that Southern and Southwestern trade, which now finds a tedious outlet through more distant ports.

The Government have contracted for the deepening of the mouths of the Mississippi, with Craig & Righter, of Kentucky, patentees of a new process.

The unphilosophical and exploded system of scraping and dredging out the channel of a river, on the score of feasibility and economy, is by these enterprising inventors demonstrated to be unworthy of the present age of progressive science; and we especially commend this valuable invention to the consideration of parties interested in deepening the outlets of rivers and harbors on the Gulf coast, assured as we are that, whenever a sufficient volume of flowing water can be centralized, the desired result can be speedily attained. It is gratifying to us to record the fact that the exclusive right to this new principle is secured to the inventors by a patent dated July 8, 1856.

The main features of this novel invention consist in a peculiar shape and point given to sawed spiles, so that after the first one, styled "beginner," is driven to its proper bearings, and secured to a substantial and continuous beam, the remaining ones, unlike the first, styled "followers," are one after another placed to the edge of its predecessor, and successively driven down. Obeying this new mechanical law, these followers, in their descent, maintain a close contact and true line, forming a complete dam or breakwater as the work progresses, each being also fastened to the continuous beam.

Aside from the magnificent results promised to the commerce of the South by the opening of her rivers to vessels of the largest class, this invention assures a speedy and effectual stopping of all crevasses and breaks to the levees that line the margin of her great rivers.

Col. Mann's proposal to organize a great Southern and European Steamship Company, published in the October number of the Review, is being re-

ceived everywhere with great favor, and will soon take a practical shape. The London Post, Palmerston's organ, takes up the subject with great zeal and ability, and regards it as of international importance.

Our advertising pages contain the advertisements of a great many Northern houses. In a business way it would be an error for us to refuse these, and to say the truth, such is the slowness of the South to sustain the Review, after all its labors, that without advertisements it would afford a very meagre revenue to the Editor. We have but a limited number of pages allotted to

this department, and would be rejoiced to have them all filled by Southern houses. So far they have declined doing so. During the coming winter, however, another effort will be made by our agents in that quarter.

See the advertisement of George G. Henry, of Mobile, of an invention "important to Cotton Planters, by which their incomes shall be doubled." Let every Cotton Planter look into this matter. Mr. Henry is well known as an experienced merchant. The full particulars of his invention will be given in the January number of the Review.

### BOOK NOTICES.

*Lingard's History of England*, abridged, with a continuation from 1688 to 1854, by James Burke, Esq., A. B., to which is prefixed a memoir of Dr. Lingard. 1856.

*Four Lectures on the Offices and Ceremonies of Holy Week*, by Cardinal Wiseman. 1854.

*The Real Presence of the Body and Blood of our Lord Jesus Christ in the Blessed Eucharist*, in eight lectures, delivered at Rome by Cardinal Wiseman. 1852.

*The Studies and Teaching of the Society of Jesus at the time of its suppression, 1750—1773*, translated from the French of Maynard. 1855.

*The Curse of the Village—The Happiness of being Rich, etc.*—by Hendrick Conscience. 1856.

*Vindication of the Catholic Church*, being the Letters of Archbishop Kenrick to the Bishop of Vermont. 1855.

*Pictorial Bible and Church History Stories for the Young*.

*The Seven Sacraments*, by the Rev. Henry Formby.

*Grantley Manor; a Tale by Lady Fullerton*, author of *Lady Bird*.

*Treatise on Algebra*, by B. Sestini, of Georgetown College, D. C.

*Elementary Algebra*, by B. Sestini, of Georgetown College, D. C.

*Rudiments of the Greek Language*, arranged for Loyola College, Baltimore.

*Life of Mrs. Eliza A. Seaton*, Foundress of the Sisters of Charity, by Chs. White, DD.

*Elements of Geometry and Trigonometry*, by B. Sestini, of Georgetown College, D. C.

*The Genius of Christianity; or, the*

*Spirit and Beauty of the Christian Religion*, by Viscount De Chateaubriand. A new and complete translation from the French, with a Preface, Biographical Notice of the Author, and Critical and Explanatory Notes, 1 vol., 800 pp.

This work was originally published in France, more than fifty years ago, and has been pronounced by the best critics one of the most eloquent, instructive, and interesting productions of which the literature of the 19th century can boast. It was designed to confute the idea which an atheistical philosophy had so widely circulated on the continent, that Christianity was an obstacle in the way of human progress; that its dogmas were absurd and its ceremonies ridiculous; that it was opposed to the arts and sciences, and was in general hostile to the liberty of man and the advancement of civilization.

All of the works in the above list have been received by us from the publishing house of John Murphy & Co., Baltimore. This establishment, which has been lately enlarged upon a very considerable scale, is by far the largest publication house in the Southern States, indeed, with the exception of J. W. Randolph's, at Richmond, it is probably as large as all of the others put together. Mr. Murphy's views are covering a wide field, and we hope yet to see him doing for the South what Appleton and Harper have hitherto entirely monopolized. It is proper for the South to hail this movement with approbation and second it with hearty encouragement. Mr. Murphy publishes many valuable literary works, Protestant and Catholic, and a long list of school books.

*The British Poets: The Poetical Works of Thomas Hood*, with some account of the author, in four volumes. Boston; Little, Brown & Co. 1856. The Cabinet Series of the Poets of England has regularly progressed until nearly sixty volumes have appeared. This edition is so convenient of size, and so admirably printed, and withal so cheap, that we suppose every private library will be furnished with a copy.

*The Conquest of Kansas, by Missouri and her allies: A history of the troubles in Kansas from the passage of the organic act until the close of July, 1856*, by William Phillips. Boston; Phillips, Sampson & Co. 1856.

Of course this is an excellent picture of the abolition side of the question, and shows up poor bleeding Kansas and all her freedom shrieking sympathisers. If any body has a taste for such literature we commend the work. It no doubt contributed largely to the political results in New England. A lie in that quarter is as potential as the truth.

*Dred: A Tale of the Great Dismal Swamp*, by Harriet Beecher Stowe, author of *Uncle Tom's Cabin*, in 2 vols. Boston; Phillips, Sampson & Co. 1856. This is another exhibition of abolition spite and spleen, which, as it is productive of the cent and dollar, makes very good charity, religion, and philanthropy

in that quarter. Mrs. Stowe's other work was dramatic and fictitious. The present lays claim only to the latter quality. They make very good black republicans, but do nothing for the negro except for the worse. When the full fruition of all this falsehood, calumny, and bitterness, is likely to be realized, the South will know how to protect herself and her rights. A temporary truce exists at present. None of us are deceived by it.

*Hand Book of Inorganic Chemistry*, for the use of Students, by Wm. Gregory, M. D., fourth American edition, to which is added the *Physics of Chemistry*, by J. Melton Sanders, M. D., New York, A. S. Barnes & Co. 1857.

*School Arithmetic*, by Charles Davies, LL. D., revised edition, New York, A. S. Barnes & Co. 1856.

*Slavery, Scriptural and Statistical*, by Thornton Stringfellow, DD., Richmond, J. W. Randolph, 1856. A small but invaluable work, and probably the best manual upon this subject after Bledsoe's.

*White Acre vs. Black Acre*, a Case at Law, by J. G., Esq., Richmond, J. W. Randolph, 1856. An admirable burlesque, which we shall have occasion fully to examine and present to our readers hereafter.

### SOUTHERN STATES.

If our subscribers who have received this work order the two similar ones referred to in the Circular, they will be particular to mention the *full title of the copy received*. We hope a large number will be ordered, as the works ought to receive encouragement from the Southern public.

### PAY UP.

The Winter and Spring are usually the period when the accounts of planters are settled. Let those who are on the roll of the Review, in arrears, take the gentle hint. They may pay by letter to the office in Washington or New Orleans. They may pay a part if they cannot the whole. They may pay in person or through their merchants at any of the following points:

Richmond—J. W. Randolph.  
Charleston—Burke, Broad street.  
Mobile—M. Boulmet.  
New Orleans—D. Felt & Stetson.

Come, gentlemen, let there be no "old scores" against any one. The laborer is worthy, etc., etc.

### NEW SUBSCRIBERS.

We hoped to have a much larger list at the opening of a new year than now seems probable. We have sent out a multitude of prospectuses. Friends, take up this matter, and if it is your will, a new name, with the equivalent, will come from every one of you. Our offer to clubs has been most liberal.

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EXTENSION TABLES, ENAMELED  
SUITES, ETAGERES, IRON SPRING  
ARM CHAIRS & LOUNGES, ROSE-  
WOOD, MAROGA



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## BOLTS, RIVETS, NUTS, WASHERS, WOOD SCREWS, AND CHAIN LINKS.

We are prepared to furnish the above articles, calculated for  
RAILROADS, MACHINE SHOPS, CAR BUILDERS, BRIDGE BUILDERS,  
&c. &c. &c.

manufactured from a superior quality of iron.

Orders for the above will receive prompt attention.

HOOPE & TOWNSEND.  
*Buttonwood Street, near Broad, Philadelphia.*

## IMPORTANT TO COTTON PLANTERS, BY WHICH THEIR INCOMES MUST BE DOUBLED.

The undersigned has invented and obtained Letters Patent from the United States for the arrangement and combination of Machinery for converting *Seed Cotton into Yarns*, by one continuous process from the Gin, through the various preparation and Spinning Machinery, until it is ready for shipment or Weaving.

The saving from waste by this process will be almost ten per cent., and Yarns made from the fibre, (unbroken and uninjured by the operations of the Machinery of the present process used to open and disentangle it,) will be about fifty per cent. stronger, and heavier, and will command the markets of the world, distancing all competition, at advanced prices.

The undersigned is prepared to dispose of privileges to use his Patent; and Planters will be informed as to terms, with complete instructions how to use it, how to obtain the best Machinery, and all other necessary particulars, on application addressed to.

GEORGE G. HENRY, *Mobile.*

EXTENSION TABLES, ENAMELED  
SUITS, ETAGERES, IRON SERRING  
ARM CHAIRS & LOUNGES, ROSE-  
WOOD, MAHOGANY AND BLACK  
WALNUT PARLOR SUITES, in Bro-  
cade, Noquet, Plush, and Hair Cloth;  
HIGH POST BEDSTEADS, SECRE-  
TARY and LIBRARY BOOK CASES.



And 159 Chambers Street.

W. H. LEE.

J. M. OTTER.

Every variety of SPRING BEDS and  
MATTRESSES. At our two Stores can  
be found the largest and best assortment  
of Cabinet Furniture in the city.

159 Chambers street, and  
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## GOOD MEDICINES.

### AYER'S CHERRY PECTORAL.



For the rapid cure of Coughs, Colds, Hoarseness, Bronchitis, Whooping Coughs, Asthma, and Consumption, is universally known as the best remedy ever yet discovered for every variety of Pulmonary disease. So wide is the field of its usefulness and so numerous the cases of its cures, that almost every section of the country abounds in persons publicly known, who have been restored from alarming and even desperate diseases of the lungs, by its use. When once tried its superiority over every other medicine of its kind is too apparent to escape observation, and where its virtues are known, the public no longer hesitate what antidote to employ for the distressing and dangerous affections of the pulmonary organs which are incident to our climate. By its timely use many, nay almost any attacks of disease upon the Lungs or throat are arrested and thus are saved many thousands every year from a premature grave. No family should be without it, and those who do neglect to provide themselves with a remedy which wards off this dangerous class of diseases will have cause to deplore it when it is too late. Proofs of the surprising efficacy of the Cherry Pectoral need not be given to the American people,—they have living proofs in every neighborhood. But those who wish to read the statements of those whose whole health has been restored and whose lives have been saved by its use, will find them in my American Almanac which the agent below named has to furnish gratis for every one.

Prepared by JAMES C. AYER, practical and analytical chemist, Lowell, Massachusetts, and sold by Z. D. Gilman, Washington, D. C.; Purcell, Ladd & Co., Richmond; Haviland, Harrell & Co., Charleston, S. C.; Joseph Tucker, Mobile, Ala.; J. Wright & Co., New Orleans, and by all respectable druggists.

**TREDEGAR  
ROLLING MILLS,**  
RICHMOND, VIRGINIA.

We continue to manufacture at these Works all sizes Bar Iron of the best quality; also, Railroad Spikes and Chairs, Rolled Axles, Bridge Bolts, &c.

We think that our Spikes have some advantage over all others, in this, that the points are a perfect taper, made very sharp, and are upset under the head, where the greatest strength is required.

Our Axles have been in use nearly twenty years on the heaviest Roads in this country, and if one has ever failed we have never been apprised of it, although we agree to replace any such with a new one.

Our Iron stands an extraordinary test for Chain Cable, which we have been manufacturing for the United States for many years, showing its adaptation for Railroad Bridge Bolts, Depot and Suspension Rods, which we can furnish of all lengths up to thirty feet.

MORRIS & TANNER.

*References:*

Col. F. C. Arms, Superintendent and Chief Engineer Memphis and Ch. Railroad Company, Memphis, Tennessee.

Messrs. Cook & Fallon, New Orleans.

**SOUTHERN GROWN FRUIT TREES.**

*In any quantity, of large size, and fine quality, at the Shelly Nurseries, Bay St. Louis, Missouri.*

Pears, Plums, Nectarines, Cherries, &c., 50 cts. Apples, Peaches, Quinces, Figs, 35 cts. each. Oranges, one dollar; other things in proportion. Trees, extra large, or bearing, at higher rates. 15 per cent. reduction by the hundred.

Sorgho Sacre Sugar cane seed \$1 per paper.

W. A. WHITFIELD, *Proprietor.*

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**FAMILY YEAST POWDER**, reliable and economical, gives perfect satisfaction.

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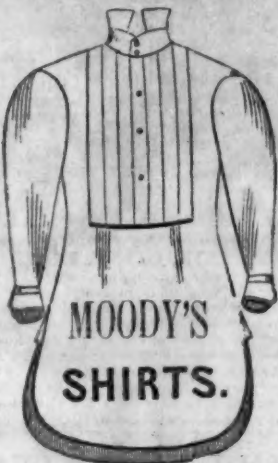
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And everything for the gentleman's toilet equally cheap.

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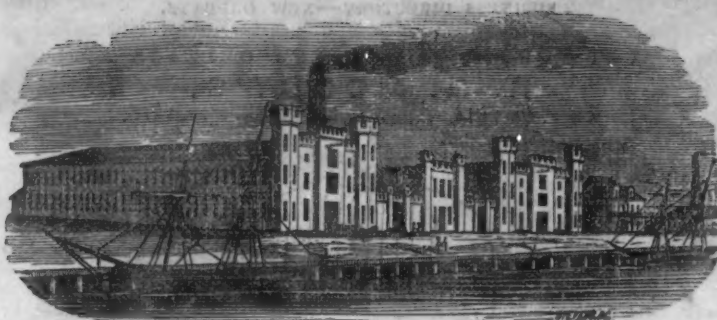
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 Orders executed with despatch.



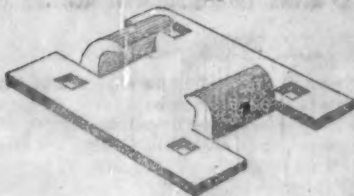
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This Company is prepared to receive orders for the manufacture of *Wrought Iron Railroad Chairs*, of the best material, on a new and superior model, and by improved patented machinery.

The thickness of the lips of the Chair increases through the bend, where the greatest strength is required, and diminishes towards the edge; so that a less weight of metal may be used and a strength acquired equal, if not superior to that of a heavier Chair of uniform thickness.

We invite attention to the Chairs made by this Company, believing they combine all the requisites necessary for the very best Railroad Chairs.

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Washington, August, 1858.

J. D. B. DE BOW.

